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THE UNIVERISTY OF ALBERTA

A DESCRIPTION OF CLASSROOM CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

by

© JAMES A. PYLYPIW

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

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The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research, for acceptance, a thesis entitled "A Description of Classroom Curriculum Development" submitted by James A. Pylypiw in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

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ABSTRACT

Emphasis has shifted from viewing curriculum development as something that is done for classroom teachers to a view suggesting that teachers should become the developers of curricula. This shift has established a need for greater understanding of how curriculum is developed at the classroom level.

The purpose of this study was to identify factors influencing teachers in making curriculum decisions and to determine the pattern(s) of classroom curriculum development that teachers perceive themselves to practise. A tentative model was generated in order to demonstrate possible alternatives to the Tylerian model and to provide direction in the development of instruments designed to gather descriptive information regarding classroom curriculum development.

Twenty teachers, employed by each of the Edmonton Public and Edmonton Separate School Boards, were selected at random to participate in this study. Each of the forty individuals taught Social Studies at the grade four, five or six levels and was using the Province of Alberta Elementary Social Studies Handbook: Experiences in Decision Making.

An interview schedule and two questionnaires were developed by the researcher to assist in the collection of data. The instruments and the data collected were reviewed by panels of judges.

Analysis of the gathered data led to the following

conclusions relating to the forty teachers involved in the study: (1) that the teachers were actively engaged in developing classroom curriculum; (2) that the needs, beliefs, and values of teachers influenced most strongly their selection of starting points for curriculum development; (3) that the student's needs and interests became most influential after the starting point was determined; (4) that the teachers followed a variety of patterns while developing classroom curricula; and (5) that the teacher's age and length of teaching experience influenced the pattern of curriculum development practised.

Evidence from this study indicates that further research is merited in the area of classroom curriculum development. Studies involving greater numbers of teachers, working at many grade levels, in various geographic locations and in different subject areas, would provide the type of data that would permit valid generalizations to be made. These generalizations might help to determine a theory of classroom curriculum development and might influence future preservice and in-service teacher education programs.

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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM, ITS NATURE AND SIGNIFICANCE

Background to the Study

Curriculum development is a process which is conducted on many levels. It occurs nationally, provincially, locally and in the classroom. A considerable amount of attention has been paid to the development of curriculum at each of these levels with the exception of the classroom. This lack of attention may be attributed to the fact that in the past, classroom curriculum development conducted by teachers was considered to be located at the bottom of the decision-making ladder. Saylor and Alexander (1966) for example, emphasize the lowly position of teachers in a model of curriculum planning which places teachers in an inferior position. This may be attributed to the fact that teachers were thought to lack suitable qualifications to make curriculum decisions for pupils in their charge.

Beauchamp (1964) in a model designed to show all of the educational activities of the elementary school, provides one with the impression that curriculum is something that is only developed for teachers outside of the classroom. His model is composed of three sequential levels: the curriculum planning level; the teaching-learning level; and the evaluation level. The curriculum planning level is primary. According to Beauchamp, it is at this level that the curriculum is generated. He states

". . . curriculum should be planned before children and teachers are assembled in the classrooms . . . [p. 15]." Level two which is the teaching-learning level ". . . is the domain of method and includes everything that goes on in the classroom . . . [p. 16]." Beauchamp describes this level as ". . . the time and place during which the curriculum is implemented or carried out in the classroom [p. 17]." Level three, the evaluation level, is concerned with determining whether the dictates of level one were achieved, whether the methods used were effective, and finally whether it was all worth the effort. The teacher's prime function in this model takes place at the teaching-learning level. It is here that he plans and executes instructional strategies that will help implement the curriculum which has been developed for him. The teacher at the classroom level, is considered to be more of an implementer than a developer of curriculum.

The emphasis in Canada has shifted from a view of curriculum development as something which is done for and given to teachers, to a position which considers teachers to be responsible for developing their own curricula. This does not suggest that teachers are free agents who are functioning without the influence of constraining factors, but it does demonstrate that the constraints are not overbearing and therefore permit classroom curriculum development to take place.

Lindsey (1962) identifies six major constraints that limit the degree of freedom available to teachers in curriculum development at the classroom level. These constraints are as follows: the national goals of the country; the functions designated to be served by the school; the teacher's own professional culture; the knowledge that is available in the world today; the conditions prevailing the immediate setting of the teacher; and the decisions made by local school systems. Despite these limitations, she maintains that there is a fair degree of latitude which permits teachers to make curricular decisions that have a major impact on what students learn in the classroom.

Hersom (1972) suggested that teachers today are involved in all levels of curriculum development. This fact is put even more forcefully by Berry, Friesen and Hersom (1971) in a publication for the Alberta Teachers' Association when they suggested that

> . . . the real maker of curriculum, the decider of decisions, the answerer of questions, is the teacher in the classroom after the door is closed [p. 4].

IDENTIFICATION OF THE PROBLEM

If the responsibility for the final choice in student learnings rests with the classroom teacher it becomes apparent that we should heed Jackson's (1968) suggestion and become concerned with what actually takes place rather than how we think it ought to take place. Goodlad (1969) points out that we know little about the realities which surround curriculum development at any level and particularly what takes place in the classroom. Grave concern about classroom curriculum development is also expressed by Connelly (1972) when he suggests that:

> Without an adequate understanding of how teachers make curriculum choices and without adequate mechanisms for educating teachers in their roles as choice makers, it is irresponsible romanticism to delegate curriculum development authority to teachers [p. 170].

In order to gather the type of information which will provide us with an understanding of how classroom curriculum is developed, it is important to regard classroom teachers not as "bureaucratic functionaries (Johnson, 1969, p. 146)" but as planners and decision makers who bring to their task perceptions, opinions, personal characteristics and backgrounds that are valid and are worthy of being identified and understood. A thorough understanding of the factors involved in a phenomenon is a prerequisite to the performance of correlational, predictive and causal type experimental studies. The state of our present knowledge about classroom curriculum development indicates a need for descriptive-survey type investigations in order to provide data about the ways teachers develop curricula in their classrooms. This study is one which seeks to give significant consideration to the perceptions, opinions, personal characteristics and background of teachers in order to investigate their role in curriculum development.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study is to identify the procedures practised by teachers in classroom curriculum development.

Particular attention is devoted to the following:

(1) The identification of elements which influence the teacher's starting point in the development of curriculum;

(2) The identification of elements which influence curriculum development following the establishment of a starting point; and

(3) The identification of the patterns which teachers follow in the curriculum development process.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Five research questions were selected:

(1) Do teachers perceive themselves to be curriculum developers?

(2) What elements influence the teacher's selection of a starting point in the development of curriculum?

(3) What elements influence the teacher in the process of curriculum development following the identification of a starting point?

(4) What patterns do teachers follow in developing curricula? and

(5) What personal characteristics influence the patterns of curriculum development practiced by classroom teachers?

ASSUMPTIONS

Three basic assumptions were made. First it was assumed that practising classroom teachers are using a number of different classroom curriculum development patterns. Secondly it was assumed that most practising teachers have been influenced by their pre-service and in-service professional programs to believe:

(1) that there is a set procedure which should be followed in order to develop curricula; and

(2) that to believe or to practise otherwise might lead to failure and misfortune for all those involved.

Thirdly, it was assumed that by using the personal interview technique which provides the opportunity to probe for answers and to assist the respondents in retrospection, the data collected would be accurate and valid for purposes of this study.

DEFINITION OF TERMS

A number of terms and expressions used in this study are defined as follows:

Curriculum: is a collection of learnings that are considered, at the national, provincial, local, and school levels, to be the necessary outcomes of schooling. These learnings are generally stated in broad terms and are identified prior to the instructional level.

Classroom Curriculum: is a collection of identified specific learnings composed of intended and non-intended outcomes of schooling. These learnings may be identified by the classroom teacher or by the classroom teacher in conjunction with the students prior to, during and/or following instructional interaction.

Curriculum Development: is a process conducted by individuals or groups of individuals who, within their own value system, consider a range of societal and individual needs and on this basis determine a collection of learnings that serve as the necessary outcomes of schooling.

Classroom Curriculum Development: is a process conducted at the instructional level by individual classroom teachers and by classroom teachers in conjunction with their students, to identify the collection of specific learnings which they consider to be the necessary and acquired outcomes of schooling.

Starting Point: represents the area of concentration that is selected to act as a beginning for classroom curriculum development. An example of a possible starting point for pupils in grade four might be,"Life in a Boom Town".

Area of Concentration: represents a general focal point or general aim from which a teaching-learning experience evolves. This expression can be synonymous with starting point.

Elements: are factors that operate to influence the teacher's selection of a startingpoint and the identification of specific learnings. These factors direct the teacher's decision-making processes.

Teaching Sequence: is composed of phases through which a teacher passes in his attempt to provide a learning experience for his students. Jackson (1970) identifies the first two phases as the preactive and interactive while Aoki (1971) identifies the third and final phase as the postactive.

Preactive Phase: is that part of the teaching process which involves making deliberate physical and mental preparations in order to facilitate a learning experience for students. It includes the selection of a starting point and the making of written and/or mental notes which will facilitate the experience.

Interactive Phase: is that part of the teaching sequence which involves interpersonal encounter between teacher and students and among students themselves. This is the point at which the preparations of the preactive phase may be implemented with or without modification.

Postactive Phase: is that part of the teaching sequence which involves the evaluation of immediate outcomes on the basis of the specific learnings that were formulated in either or both of the preactive and interactive phases. It also involves the identification of specific learnings that had not been identified in previous phases.

Instructional Design: identifies the methodological process which will be implemented in the interactive phase in order to provide a learning experience for students.

Specific Instructional Design: identifies clearly and in minute detail, the methodological processes that will be implemented in the interactive phase, in order to provide a learning experience for students.

General Aims: are learning intents stated in broad nonspecific terms. When they are accumulated they may form a national, provincial, or local area curricula.

Specific Objectives: are clearly defined learnings which when accumulated help to form the actual components of classroom curriculum. Specific objectives are considered to be synonymous with specific learnings.

Outcomes: are the learnings accumulated by students as a result of having been involved in a teaching sequence in a formal school setting.

Formal School Setting: is the environment provided for learning in a publicly supported educational system.

DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Since differences exist among the various subject areas comprising the elementary school's educational program, and since these differences might cause classroom teachers to follow different curriculum development patterns, it was decided that one subject area would be selected as a focus in this initial attempt to gather information. Social Studies was chosen as the area of focus because the Alberta Elementary Social Studies Handbook, Experiences in Decision Making (1971) explicitly invites classroom teachers to be developers of curriculum. It suggests that:

> The curriculum allows for decisions to be made by those who will be affected by them. The objectives and content prescribed by the Department of

> Education are stated in the very broadest of terms. Within this broad framework, called the master curriculum, teachers and students can practice responsible decision making by planning together learning experiences which are significant and relevant to their own lives [p. 5].

The curriculum development process practised by the classroom teacher might also be affected by the age group of the students for whom the teacher is planning. The study was conducted with teachers of grade four, five, or six students, who professed to be using Experiences in Decision Making in their Social Studies program.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The major limitation of this study is the possible effect of past conditioning on teacher responses to the items in the interview schedule and in the questionnaires. It is quite possible that the respondents might have been reticent about divulging information about their customary curriculum development activities particularly if they deviated from what teachers perceive to be accepted norms.

This study is of an exploratory nature and therefore a random sample was limited to forty teachers from two urban school systems. Because the respondents, who were questioned in this investigation were employed in one geographical location, the results of this study are not generalizable beyond the population from which the sample was drawn.

Another limitation is related to the scope of the study.

The subjects in the sample were teaching at the grade four, five or six levels only and questions were restricted to curriculum development as it applies to a single subject area.

Force choice answers to items in certain parts of the interview and the questionnaires may have restricted response.

The final limitation pertains to the fact that there may be a significant gap between what classroom teachers perceive themselves to do and what in fact they practise.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Canadian teachers are expected, as part of their professional responsibility, to fulfill the role of classroom curriculum developers. W. V. Allester, in an address delivered to the British Columbia Association of Supervisors of Instruction, in 1971, said that: "The detailed development of curriculum should be the responsibility of the teachers in the schools." In Alberta this delegation of responsibility has been demonstrated in the handbook for Social Studies, Experiences in Decision Making (1971). In Ontario, Curriculum P1, J1 Interim Revision Science (1967) suggests that when curriculum " . . . is designed by the teacher for the boys and girls actually in his trust, a maximum of satisfaction and achievement becomes possible [p. 5]." Much has been written about how curriculum should be developed by teachers but unfortunately the writings have been largely based on speculation rather than on the findings of research. This study is designed to aid in the process of gathering descriptive data about curriculum development at the classroom level.

A sufficient amount of knowledge about this phenomenon may be accumulated eventually to permit the development of a valid theory. It may also be possible to generate a teacher education program which will prepare individuals to discharge their duties as curriculum developers in an effective manner.

ORGANIZATION OF THE STUDY

Chapter I has described the overall purpose for the study, it has delineated five specific research questions, and has outlined the delimitations, limitations and basic assumptions underlying the research. Definitions of terms used in the study have been provided.

Chapter II attempts to bring the problem more sharply into focus by reviewing the literature related to theories and models of curriculum development, the teacher's role in curriculum development and the nature of descriptive studies and techniques used.

Chapter III describes the research methodologies that were applied. It describes the characteristics of the sample group and the means by which they were selected to become participants in the study. It delineates the procedures involved in collecting the research data, in determining the validity and reliability of the instruments and concludes by describing the methods which were used to analyse the research data.

Chapter IV presents in tabular and written form the findings related to the research questions.

Chapter V provides a summary of the study, a description of the implciations for theory development, for practice, and for further research.

SUMMARY

Curriculum is developed at various levels within Canadian educational systems. Curriculum development at the classroom level is becoming increasingly important as teachers are expected by provincial policy to perform this task. Since this responsibility is officially theirs, it is important that a thorough understanding of the process be available in order that teacher education programs may be developed to provide individuals with the knowledge that will allow them to perform the task effectively.

CHAPTER II

RELATED LITERATURE AND A TENATIVE MODEL

Introduction

This chapter is devoted to the establishment of a conceptual framework for the study. Although literature relating to curriculum development is available in abundance, it is mainly didactic in nature rather than an outgrowth from research findings. For this reason the majority of the references used fall into the category of untested opinions of various authorities in the curriculum field. By describing a selected number of curriculum development models, it will be demonstrated that a need for research exists, particularly at the classroom level. Justification will be provided for performing a descriptive study and for the use of an interview technique.

Overview of Selected Curriculum Models

Bobbitt (1918) and Charter (1923) may be given credit for having introduced, at approximately the same time, the idea of a formalized procedure for developing curriculum. They provided models which standardized the processes utilized in the formation of curricula.

Both Charters and Bobbitt analyzed adult life for the purpose of gathering the type of information which would permit them to determine the objectives of schooling. Bobbitt viewed adult life in order to identify the abilities which would best make the individual function in a given society, while Charters viewed the same phenomenon for the purpose of identifying the knowledge which would prove to be useful for living.

Bobbitt's (1924) highly prescriptive but logical curriculum development format represents today's traditional or classical model. According to him "The first step in curriculum-making is to decide what specific educational results are to be produced [p. 32]." He stressed the importance of stating objectives in clear and specific terms in order that there be no doubt on the part of teachers, students or parents as to the meaning which was intended. The specific objectives were then to be used by teachers to determine the instructional procedures which would be practised. In Bobbitt's view the activities and experiences which composed the instructional design constituted the curriculum.

Charters (1923) created a curriculum development model which was composed of seven parts:

> First, determine the major objectives of education by a study of the life of man in its social setting.
>
> Second, analyze these objectives into ideals and activities and continue the analysis to the level of working units.
>
> Third, arrange these in order of importance.
>
> Fourth, raise to positions of higher order in this list those ideals and activities which are high in value for children but low in value for adults.
>
> Fifth, determine the number of the most important items of the resulting list which can be handled in the time allotted to school education, after deducting those which are better learned outside of school.

> Sixth, collect the best practices of the race in handling these ideals and activities.
>
> Seventh, arrange the material so obtained in proper instructional order, according to the psychological nature of children [p. 102].

The identification of objectives headed the list in Charters' model, indicating that curriculum development had to begin with this practice. In his view the responsibility for the identification of these objectives fell on the shoulders of those who were providing instruction in the schools. Curriculum according to Charters (1923) was composed " . . . of both ideals and activities on the one hand and their methods of realization and performance on the other hand [p. 74]."

On examining the curriculum development models of Tyler (1950) and Taba (1962), generated approximately 30 years later, it is found that they differ to a degree from Bobbitt and Charters in their views regarding the actual sources for curriculum but they still agree that objectives must be identified before any other steps in the process are taken.

Tyler (1950) presented his model in the form of four questions to be answered when developing curriculum: (1) What educational purposes should the school seek to attain? (2) What educational experiences can be provided that are likely to attain these purposes? (3) How can these educational experiences be effectively organized? and (4) How can we determine whether these purposes are being attained?

According to Tyler's (1950) rationale, in order to develop curriculum it is necessary to identify and state objectives, to select suitable experiences, to organize these experiences, and to evaluate the extent to which the intended learnings had been achieved. He considered it necessary to start the process by stating objectives in clear behavioral terms, for it was only under these conditions that

> . . . the curriculum-maker has the most useful set of criteria for selecting content, for suggesting learning activities, for deciding on the kind of teaching procedures to follow, in fact to carry on all the further steps of curriculum planning [p. 62].

Tyler suggested that information for determining objectives came from three sources: through the study of learners, through the study of contemporary life, and through the advice of subject-matter specialists. All information was then passed through a philosophical and psychological screen before it was utilized for the development of curriculum.

Taba (1962) suggested that by pursuing the following seven steps, which constitute her curriculum development model, " . . . a more thoughtfully planned and a more dynamically conceived curriculum [p. 12]" would result:

Step 1: Diagnosis of needs

Step 2: Formulation of objectives

Step 3: Selection of content

Step 4: Organization of content

Step 5: Selection of learning experiences

Step 6: Organization of learning experiences

Step 7: Determination of what to evaluate and of the ways and means of doing it [p. 12].

Curriculum according to Taba (1962), is something which

> . . . contains a statement of aims and of specific objectives; it indicates some selection and organization of content; it either implies or manifests certain patterns of learning and teaching, whether because the objectives demand them or because the content organization requires them. Finally it includes a program of evaluation of the outcomes [p. 10].

She suggested that the development of this curriculum should be scientific and should be based on information derived from

> . . . analyses of society and culture, studies of the learner and the learning process, and analyses of the nature of knowledge . . . [p. 10].

It is interesting to note the great similarity which exists between the Taba and Tyler models. The only significant difference appears to be that Taba is explicit about the fact that needs must first be diagnosed whereas Tyler considers this to be an implicit part of his model. A footnote appears in Taba's (1962) text, where she indicates that

> These steps are comparable to a sequence proposed in a syllabus by Tyler (1950). A similar sequence is described by Taba (1945) [p. 12].

The Tyler and Taba models represent what has become known as the "traditional" or "classical" approach to the development of curriculum. The idea of commencing with the identification of objectives has been so well argued that it has become widely accepted as the only way by which curriculum can be generated. Evidence of the widespread acceptance of the traditional linear model is strikingly apparent in much of the educational literature that deals with the broad field of curriculum as well as with specific subject areas. Thomas and Brubaker (1971) in their book relating to Social Studies vividly demonstrate the impact of the traditional model in this statement:

> Whatever labels you may employ, the three basic steps of the instructional journey, are the same: (1) deciding precisely where you intend to go, (2) choosing a route and a mode of transport, and (3) checking periodically on how close you are to the goal. The logic of these steps may appear quite simple, perhaps even trite. But each day, in thousands of classrooms, pupils suffer from inadequate instruction because their teachers either have failed to understand the details of the steps or else have ignored them. Obvious or not, the three steps form the basic framework of effective teaching [p. 75].

Psychologists, such as Skinner and Gagné, have played an important role in shaping the thinking of teachers to accept the traditional model. They have been calling for specificity and for the identification of objectives as the first step toward effective teaching. Skinner (1968) said that "The first step in designing instruction is to define the terminal behavior [p. 199]." Gagné (1965) also reinforces this line of reasoning by suggesting that "The initial step in deciding on the conditions for learning is that of defining objectives [p. 241]."

Proponents of behavioral objectives such as Mager (1962), as well as Popham and Baker (1970) have made their contribution to strengthening the belief that an effective teacher must determine specific objectives before any other steps in the educational process may be taken. Popham and Baker (1970) suggested that

> The teacher first specifies precise objectives in terms of pupil behavior. Second, he pre-assesses the learners' behavior with respect to the objectives and, as a result, may modify his objectives. Third, he devises an instructional sequence consistent with the best that is known regarding how pupils learn. Fourth, he evaluates the post-instruction performance of the learners and makes appropriate decisions regarding his instructional sequence and/or the quality of his objectives [p. 19].

Objections to the Traditional Model

Despite the wide acceptance and the great popularity associated with the traditional model, it has not lacked its fair share of critics. Long before this model reached its present importance, Dewey (1922) had suggested that:

> . . . ends arise and function within action. They are not, as current theories too often imply, things lying beyond activity at which the latter is directed [p. 223].

Kliebard (1970) in his criticism of Tyler's rationale, builds on Dewey's view and says that:

> . . . the starting point for a model of curriculum and instruction is not the statement of objectives but the activity (learning experience), and whatever objectives do appear will arise within that activity as a way of adding a new dimension to it [p. 268].

In his concluding paragraph he praises Tyler for the contribution which he has made to curriculum but cautions that we must ". . . recognize the Tyler rationale for what it is: Ralph Tyler's version of how a curriculum should be developed--not the universal model of curriculum development [p. 270]."

Hyman's (1972) criticism of the means-end type of reasoning which pervades the traditional curriculum development model, parallels to a great extent what was already stated by Kliebard. He goes a step further than Kliebard by suggesting a schema (taken from Giles, McCutchen and Zachiel, 1942, p. 1) which does not provide direction for the selection of objectives but which does present an alternative to the traditionally structured model. Rather, the four components characterizing the Tyler rationale are considered to be interdependent, thus removing Tyler's sequential ordering.

Hyman (1972) concludes by calling for additional ways of viewing curriculum development. He says:

> The Tyler rationale for curriculum development is currently widely accepted. Other possibilities are not well worked out and virtually unknown by curriculum workers in the schools. It is precisely because of the acceptance of the Tyler rationale as near dogma that criticisms and doubts about it deserve the careful, serious attention of curriculum workers [pp. 400-401].

Macdonald (1965) argues that despite the fact that teachers may accept the traditional, rational approach regarding the statement of objectives as the first step in the educational process,

> . . . the teacher in actuality asks a fundamentally different question from "What am I trying to accomplish?" The teacher asks "What am I going to do?" and out of the doing comes accomplishment [p. 614].

Jackson (1968) as a result of having studied a group of twenty effective teachers, supports Macdonald's view. He concluded that teachers are primarily concerned about student involvement in activity and not in student learnings. He decided that teachers hope that learnings will occur almost as a form of by-product.

A similar view to that of Macdonald is presented by Eisner (1967) who suggests that the rational approach to curriculum development, of stating objectives before considering ways of implementation, is " . . . logically defensible, but is not psychologically efficient [p. 257]." He claims that effective teachers often select activities which seem to possess educational value and then by examining the activity, identify specific objectives.

Eisner (1969) offers an alternative to the statement of specific objectives by coining the phrase "expressive objectives". He defines the expressive objective as something that describes an educational encounter. It provides detail regarding a task in which students are to engage but does not indicate what specific learnings are to result from the experience. The emphasis is on developing a setting and situation that leads to interaction among the components located in the environment and out of this interaction specific learnings result.

Miel (1973) in presenting her views on the issues and options which face elementary schools today, points out that the traditional model is being challenged by those who consider its linearity to be an obstacle in meeting children on their own ground. They prefer to identify objectives through contact with pupils, using a great mix of factors in order to determine the direction in which instruction should flow. Miel suggests that this type of approach could be called "planning in the round [p. 108]."

March (1972) argues against a constant diet of decision-making which involves the establishment of objectives as a beginning. He recommends that we travel a variety of pathways and not depend solely on one rationale for our actions.

Curriculum development is a complex process performed at various levels in an educational system. The traditional model, designed to serve at all levels of development, seems to work best when it is used at a distance from the pupils and the classroom

(Miel, 1973), but suffers two major weaknesses when applied in the classroom by teachers: (1) sources for determining pupil learnings are not provided (Kliebard, 1970); and (2) the linearity and prescriptive rigidity of the model removes the type of flexibility that teachers need and want in the classroom setting.

The Naturalistic Curriculum Development Model

In contrast to the traditional stance, Walker (1971) has developed a naturalistic model of curriculum development based on the observation of an actual curriculum project. His model represents an alternative to the traditional model. The model is composed of three components: the platform, the deliberations, and the design.

He suggests that it is impossible for a curriculum developer to begin the process of development without bringing to the task his set of beliefs and values. These beliefs and values make up the platform that guides the developer in his decisions regarding the composition of the curriculum. The developer uses his platform and additional information to make decisions. The process involved in this case represents the second component of Walker's model, the deliberation. He points out that:

> The main operations in curriculum deliberation are formulating decision points, devising alternative choices at these decision points, considering arguments for and against suggested decision points and decision alternatives, and, finally, choosing the most defensible alternative subject to acknowledged constraints [p. 54].

The output of the deliberations leads to the creation of a set of design decisions rather than a list of objectives. The design decisions represent

> . . . the set of relationships embodied in the materials-in-use which are capable of affecting students--rather than the materials themselves are the important concerns of the curriculum specialist (Walker, 1971, p. 53).

Walker's model is descriptive rather than prescriptive as is the traditional model. It has a beginning, which is the platform, an end, which is the design and a process which is the deliberation by which the beginning leads to the end. Walker (1971) clearly makes the point that "Objectives are not a starting point in this model but a late development of the curriculum maker's platform [p. 59]."

Research in Curriculum Development

Ammons (1964) using the Tyler rationale as a base, performed a study to investigate what relatinship exists between process and product in curriculum development. One-hundred and seventy primary and intermediate level teachers, with a wide range of experience, who were employed by seventy-seven different school systems in the Chicago area, took part in the study. Ammons found that these teachers developed their instructional programs on the basis of what they had done in the past rather than on the educational objectives of the school system. She concluded that grade level, tenure, and participation in the initial development of school curricula, played a minor role in determining the teacher's use of objectives.

Goodlad and Klein (1970) in their study of one-hundred and fifty elementary school classrooms, found that the majority of teachers paid no attention to curriculum guides because they preferred to use textbooks as the determiners of starting points in curriculum development. Goodlad and Klein also found that the teachers felt that too many restraints were placed on their initiative and demanded greater freedom in the planning of curriculum.

The Teacher's Role in Classroom Curriculum Development

It is possible that the responsibility of classroom teachers in making curriculum decisions has increased in direct relation to their increased understanding of pupil characteristics and needs, to their improved insight into what is involved in the learning process, to their understanding of the changes which have occurred in cultural views, and to the improved supply of better trained teachers. These factors have led us to the point where according to Ragan, Wilson and Ragan (1972)

> Curriculum planning is now regarded as a continuous, cooperative enterprise in which the teacher plays a major role. Teachers are expected to serve on committees and participate in the deliberations of the entire staff in determining the overall design of the curriculum. Furthermore, the overall design of the curriculum developed by the entire staff usually leaves a great deal of freedom for the individual teacher to make adaptations to his own classroom situation. Much of the significant curriculum planning, therefore goes on in the individual classroom [pp. 46-47].

Alice Miel (1973) supports the idea that classroom teachers must be curriculum developers when she suggests that

> At best, the given curriculum is a resource for the teachers and the children. Whether a teacher is handed a closed or an open curriculum , further curriculum planning is called for at the classroom level to adjust it to the children [p. 109].

She goes on to explain that in order to make effective curriculum decisions it is necessary to begin at the point at which children are located, and not to depend on the learnings which someone else thinks the children should achieve. She also argues that only the teacher is in a position to gather and to act on information derived through careful observation of each child as he interacts in the classroom setting.

Martin (1969) presents an argument that even the ideal curriculum developed for teachers represents nothing more than a selection from learnings considered to be important by a cross-section of society. Since there are many important learnings and since the curriculum exists for the benefit of the students, it is logical for the teacher to make further selections based on the nature of the students in the classroom.

There are a few who support the idea that the teacher is nothing more than " . . . a functionary in an essentially bureaucratic system (Wayland, 1962, p. 43)." Most educators tend to share the opinion expressed by Lindsey (1962) who suggests that despite constraints ranging from the national goals of a country to the decisions made by school administrators, a fair degree of latitude remains for teachers to make curriculum decisions that have a major impact on what pupils learn in the classroom.

Definitions of Curriculum

Curriculum planning is a complex process (Taba, 1962) and its complexity is heightened by the lack of agreement which surrounds the definition of the word and by the absence of a valid theory of curriculum development (Beauchamp, 1961).

Hosford (1973) pointed out that the definitions of curriculum generated during the past twenty years seem to fit into one of four categories:

(1) Everything that happens group
(2) Everything that is offered group
(3) The planned what and how group
(4) The planned what group [p. 35].

Ragan's (1960) definition best illustrates the "everything that happens group" for he defines curriculum as being " . . . the ongoing experiences of children under the guidance of the school [p. 4]." In this case curriculum includes all of the things that occur to the child while he is in attendance at school.

The "everything that is offered group" may be represented by Saylor's (1966) definition of curriculum which suggests that it " . . . encompasses all the learning experiences provided by the school [p. 5]." This definition excludes those experiences that were not planned to be part of the school's curriculum.

The definition of curriculum development by Krug (1957) represents "the planned what and how group" when he claims that " . . . curriculum consists of the means of instruction used by the school to provide opportunities for student experiences leading to desired learning outcomes [p. 3]." In this case both the intended learnings and the processes by which they are brought about are considered to be the components of curriculum.

Group four, "the planned what group", is represented best by the definition which was developed by Johnson (1967) who claimed that

> Curriculum is a structured series of intended learning outcomes. Curriculum prescribes (or at least anticipates) the results of instruction. It does not prescribe the means [p. 129].

Variation in the definition of curriculum has caused communication problems among individuals who are concerned with this area. In addition to communication difficulties, theory construction becomes an impossible task when it is based on something which lacks definition. As Beauchamp (1961) suggests ". . . one must know specifically what he is theorizing about before he can do theory building [p. 90]."

Theory of Curriculum Development

Moore (1971) points out that there is little resemblance between the literature of curriculum development and the actual reality of curriculum development in the classroom. She suggests that this lack of congruence may be due to the fact that the authors of curriculum literature draw on curriculum theory for their information rather than on what actually is practised in the classrooms. The implication here is that the gap between theory and practice is due to faulty theory and therefore theory is not a valid source to draw on for classroom curriculum development.

Theory, according to Griffiths (1959, pp. 25-27) serves the following purposes: to provide us with direction to action;

to assist us in the collection of information; to guide us to new knowledge; and to help explain the phenomenon. We are presently at the stage in the curriculum field where it is necessary to conduct descriptive studies in order to gather information describing how classroom curriculum development is conducted. When this has been done it may then be possible for us to generate " . . . an internally consistent body of verified hypotheses (Hearn, p. 8, 1958)" which will represent a theory of curriculum development at the classroom level.

General theories of curriculum development have been developed to be applicable in a great variety of situations. It is possible that these theories are attempting to cover too great an area and therefore are failing in their intent. It may be necessary to develop a theory for each level of curriculum development before a general theory can be established.

Subject Versus Student Centered Curriculum Development

Curriculum development in the elementary school is often based on one or on a combination of the following: (1) the subject centered approach; (2) the broadfields approach; (3) the problems and activities of living approach; and (4) the student's needs, interests and problems approach (Saylor, 1966, pp. 167-179). Although the broadfields approach possesses an inter-disciplinary structure it emphasizes subject matter just as the first approach mentioned above. These two appraoches may therefore be grouped under the single title, subject centered approach. Approaches three and four may also be grouped to form what is known as the experience curriculum approach (Herrick, 1965, p. 40). These two approaches focus their attention on the learner.

Curriculum development based on the subject approach provides the teacher with little or no opportunity to identify and organize concepts to be learned (Herrick, 1965, p. 34). Teacher involvement is unnecessary because generally the curriculum has been developed by someone who is considered to be a subject specialist and who possesses the necessary background for making decisions of this nature. The subject teacher's responsibility exists in following the basic textbook or content guide and making use of the instructional materials provided. The teacher's major function is to evaluate the progress made by pupils, and on this basis to adjust the timing of the program to suit the needs of the individual child. A linear curriculum development model such as Tyler's is most suited to this type of orientation because the specific learnings related to the subject may all be identified in advance of the interactive phase.

Curriculum development based on the needs, interests and experiences of pupils provides many opportunities for the teacher to identify what learnings should be taught and how they should be organized. Using this approach learnings are based on the immediate conditions surrounding the learner. A constant awareness of the student's ongoing experience is required on the part of the curriculum maker in order to identify the problems that should be resolved, the resources that should be used, and the processes that should be implemented. Herrick (1965) suggests that when curriculum is developed on the basis of student needs, experiences, and problems, the planning is

> . . . an integral part of the learning process and does not permit any schematic arrangement of things to be accomplished or the development of a curriculum framework which is agreed upon by the school staff in advance and which would develop the scope and sequence of the learning program from the kindergarten through grade twelve. In this design the scope of the curriculum consists in the scope of the child's world at the moment--a scope which will broaden and deepen as rapidly as his world can be extended, and no more rapidly. The sequence of the curriculum is determined by the conscious continuity of the child's learning experience [p. 41-42].

Emphasis is not placed on the identification of specific learnings in advance but rather is placed on the teacher becoming aware of them during interaction with the pupils. Since the prime focus is on the child rather than on the subject area, the linear curriculum development model of Tyler or Taba has less application in this situation because the teaching-learning experiences that follow this approach often begin without an idea of what specific learnings will result.

The Province of Alberta Elementary Social Studies Handbook, Experiences in Decision Making (1971) represents an attempt to blend the subject centered approach with the experience centered approach in order to derive the benefits both views have to offer. It is hoped that this curriculum " . . . will serve the humanistic goals of education by offering students experience in living and not just preparation for living [p. 9]."

The blend of the two approaches is apparent from the statement made with respect to the structured scope and sequence of the program:

> Approximately two-thirds of social studies class time will be spent inquiring into themes, value issues and concepts which fall within the scope and sequence specified by the Department of Education. This scope and sequence is very general, thus permitting teachers and students to select learning opportunities according to their own needs and interests [p. 16].

It is further explained that

> Approximately one-third of class time in social studies may be devoted to problems that are of current interest to students and teachers. The Department of Education does not intend to structure the use of this one-third time. Problems which meet the criteria which follow may arise as extensions of the main themes and value issues for each guide. They may relate to problems of individual students, the school, the community, or the world, and may concern the past, the present and/or the future. A given problem may be studied by the whole class, by a group, or by individual students [p. 17].

Teachers who are involved in programs that look to the needs, interests and experiences of pupils, entirely or in part, are in effect classroom curriculum developers.

A TENTATIVE CLASSROOM CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT MODEL

Introduction

Figure 1 portrays the various patterns that teachers may follow when developing curriculum. This model was developed by the author on the bases of the components of the traditional model, the naturalistic model and on the many recommendations made by critics in an attempt to improve the traditional model.

The model is composed of five phases: (1) the starting point; (2) the specific objectives phase; (3) the specific

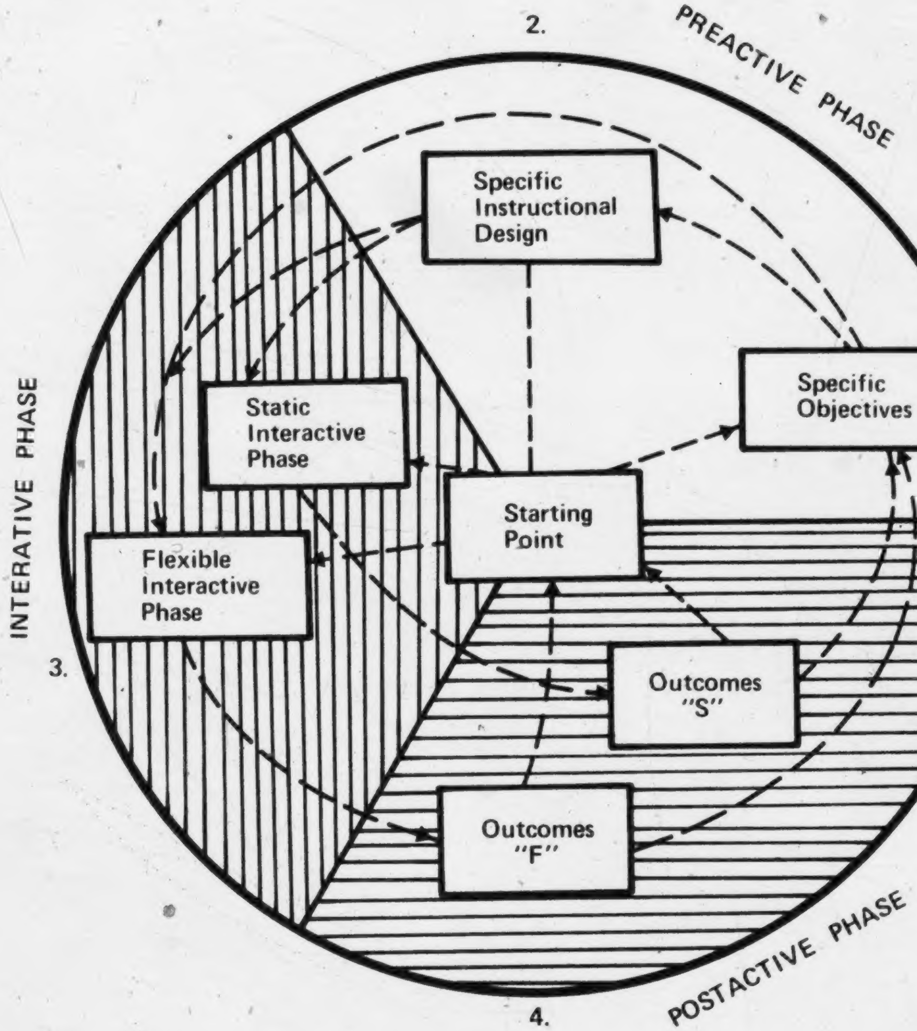
2.
PREACTIVE PHASE
Specific Instructional Design
Specific Objectives
1.
INTERATIVE PHASE
Static Interactive Phase
Starting Point
Flexible Interactive Phase
3.
Outcomes "S"
Outcomes "F"
POSTACTIVE PHASE
4.

Figure 1: A Tentative Classroom Curriculum Development Model

instructional design phase; (4) the interactive phase; and (5) the outcomes phase. A brief description of each phase and a general overview of how these phases are interrelated follows.

The Starting Point

All of the constraints which function to influence the teacher's decision making with respect to the selection of an area of concentration are located at the starting point. This point represents a static focal position in the model and acts as the beginning of all classroom curriculum development. It includes the teacher's personal background and value base which Walker (1971) classifies as the platform.

The Specific Objectives Phase

The specific objectives phase represents those learnings identified directly after the area of concentration has been determined. They are stated in exact terms and represent the ends toward which all activities flow.

The Specific Instructional Design Phase

This phase stands for the point at which the teacher identifies clearly and in detail, the methodological processes that will be implemented in the interactive phase. The design may be based on pre-determined specific objectives or it may be based on a general area of concentration identified at the starting point.

The general area of concentration might be something like "Life in a Boom Town". In the event that the instruction has been planned on the basis of a general area selected at the starting point, the teacher may identify specific objectives at this point before proceeding to the next phase or the teacher may proceed directly to the interactive phase.

The Interactive Phase

This phase represents the point at which the teacher and pupils begin to interact directly, each influencing the other. It is here that the specific instructional design, regardless of whether it is based on pre-determined specific objectives or on a general area of concentration developed at the starting point or whether it is a design which includes specific objectives identified after the specific plan had been established, is put into practice. This also represents the point at which the general area of concentration determined at the starting point may be implemented without a specific instructional design and without specific objectives. In the event that specific objectives have not been identified prior to entering the interactive phase, they may be identified during the interactive process. It is also possible, during interaction to modify, delete from and add to the specific objectives which had been determined prior to entering this phase.

The Outcomes Phase

The outcomes phase represents that stage where the teacher determines what learnings have taken place. The learnings include those which were intended as well as those which occurred during the interactive process. If the learnings are judged to be complete, the teacher returns to the starting point in order to identify a new area of concentration. If the learnings are considered to be incomplete then the teacher may proceed to any of the other phases which he considers to be suitable for the purpose of completing the identified learnings.

Static and Flexible Routes

The teacher may follow a static or flexible route when the interactive phase is reached. The static route, designated by the letter "S", indicates that the learnings have been established and that deviations from the pre-determined objectives will not be tolerated. The flexible route, designated by the letter "F" indicates that various deletions, additions and modifications may result during the interactive phase.

Classroom Curriculum Development Patterns

Different curriculum development patterns may result through the use of this model. Four possible patterns will be described briefly.

Pattern 1

Pattern 1 commences at the box labelled Starting Point. This is the point from which a general area of concern is selected by the teacher. Next, the teacher identifies specific objectives which are to materialize as outcomes. These objectives serve as inputs for the planned instructional sequence. When the instructional design has been determined the teacher may follow one of two routes. Should the teacher follow route "S", the learning experience is executed as planned and no deviation from the initial plan is permitted. If the teacher follows route "F", an attempt is made to execute the experience as it was planned but flexibility is permitted in the event that it becomes apparent that revisions in instructional procedures and specific objectives are required. When the presentation has been completed, in the case where route "S" is followed, the teacher evaluates the outcomes; if they have been achieved, the teacher returns to the Starting Point and the process starts anew, but should the objectives not be achieved, then the teacher would simply follow the same pattern through again. At the conclusion of the presentation where route "F" has been followed, the teacher evaluates the outcomes and if the objectives have been achieved, then the teacher returns to the Starting Point in order to select a new starting point; but should the objectives not be achieved, the teacher would repeat the same pattern for a second time, choosing to travel either the "S" or "F" route..

Pattern 2

Pattern 2 also commences from the box labelled Starting Point. Rather than considering specific objectives to be achieved, the teacher moves directly into planning an instructional sequence which emphasizes activity leading to a great deal of student involvement. When the instructional design has been determined the teacher identifies the specific objectives to be achieved. When route "S" is followed, the outcomes are evaluated. If the objectives have been achieved then the teacher returns to the Starting Point. Should the objectives not be achieved then Pattern 1 may be followed. If the teacher follows route "F", specific objectives may also be identified during the interactive phase. In this case additions, deletions, and modifications to the objectives may be made. At the conclusion of the interactive phase the teacher evaluates the outcomes and if the objectives have been achieved, the teacher returns to the Starting Point in order to establish a new area of concentration; but should the objectives not be achieved, the teacher would return to any phase that would lead to the necessary learnings.

Pattern 3

For pattern 3 the teacher moves directly into the interactive phase after having selected an area of concentration at the Starting Point. Should the teacher follow route "S", the learning experience would simply evolve, no specific objectives or instructional sequences would be identified and therefore no evaluation of outcomes would take place. The teacher would then return to the Starting Point in order to select a new beginning. If route "F" is followed, specific objectives and instructional sequences would be identified through interaction with the students. The outcomes would be evaluated, and if the objectives were all achieved, the teacher would return to the Starting Point to seek out a new area of concern. Should the evaluation indicate tht some specific objectives still remained to be accomplished the teacher would not return to the Starting Point but rather would move to any phase that would lead to the necessary learnings.

Pattern 4

Pattern 4 may begin in the preactive phase, at the point where the teacher plans a specific instructional sequence based on a selected area of concentration but does not identify specific learnings which are to be acoomplished. It is possible, at this point, to follow either the static or flexible route. If route "S" is taken the instructional sequence is executed as planned with no deviation being permitted. When the postactive phase is reached the teacher reflects on what took place during interaction and on this basis identifies the specific learnings which occurred. If the teacher is satisfied with the learnings which have occurred, he may return to the starting point, but if he identifies a specific learning that has not taken place, but according to professional judgment should have been learned, he may move to Pattern 1 in order to complete the sequence. If route "F" is followed, the specific instructional sequence is put into practice during the interactive phase. Modifications are made in the instructional design as the situation merits. When the postactive phase is reached, through reflection, the teacher identifies the specific learnings which had occurred and also those which might have occurred. At this point the teacher decides whether he should move to pick up a new starting point or whether he should attempt to pursue any of the identified specific learnings that had not been accomplished.

The model illustrated in Figure 1 is designed to show a few of the patterns of classroom curriculum development used by teachers. This model permits a comparison to be made between what has been conceptualized and what is practised.

Descriptive Studies

Descriptive studies represent the most commonly used approach in educational research (Mouly, 1970). This form of study is present-oriented, conducted to establish the status of the specific phenomenon under investigation. The phenomenon exists but data regarding it are lacking. Through the use of various data collection instruments and through analysis of the data, a description of the phenomenon results.

Fox (1969) pointed out that descriptive studies fall into three categories: collection of data describing a specific phenomenon; comparison of two or more phenomena on the basis of some pre-determined factor; and the evaluation of a phenomenon on the basis of pre-determined criteria. This study falls into the first category because " . . . the information provided is in itself the answer to the research question(s) posed (Fox, 1969, p. 424)." Interviews and questionnaires are the key methods by which data are collected for this type of study.

Rationale for the Interview Survey

According to Adams (1958) the interview may be viewed as an information seeking relationship involving direct communication between the interviewer and the interviewee. This direct communication process has many advantages over the information gathering questionnaire. Mouly (1970) suggests that the interview leads to the establishment of a rapport which encourages the respondent to provide answers of increased validity and completeness; it allows the investigator to clarify the meaning of key terms and expressions in order to ensure that all respondents understand the questions equally well; and it permits the interviewer to encourage the interviewee to elaborate on those points which have not been made clear or which have been partially or completely avoided. Good (1972) points out that it is often only through face-to-face contact with people that certain types of information can be secured, particularly when the information is of a personal or a confidential nature.

Types of Interviews

Interviews are classified under three general headings: the schedule standardized interview, the nonschedule standardized interview, and the nonstandardized interview. Although each of these interview types may be used independently in an investigation, it is also possible to combine them in a single interview. The decision regarding which type or combination of types to use is based on the degree of specificity and on the nature of the information which is required. It is also based on the degree of homogeneity in background and personal characteristics which prevail among the respondents who make up the sample group.

The Schedule Standardized Interview

The schedule standardized interview is designed for the purpose of gathering, from each respondent, similar pre-determined information for comparison and classification. In this case the respondents generally possess a high degree of homogeneity in background and personal characteristics. The interviewer adheres to the exact wording and order of the questions of the schedule. At no time is he permitted to deviate from the established structure regardless of what circumstances might present themselves. In the event that the interviewee does not hear or understand the question which has been asked, the interviewer is expected to repeat the question without rephrasing or providing any form of elaboration. The interviewer attempts to standardize his behavior from one interview to the other and he provides the same type of introduction and statement of purpose for each respondent. Richardson, Dohrenwend, and Klein (1965) suggest that it is often impossible to adhere rigidly to the schedule and therefore a limited amount of flexible behavior is introduced when circumstances warrant its introduction.

The Nonschedule Standardized Interview

The nonschedule standardized interview similarly is designed to gather from each interviewee information about predetermined topics in order to make comparisons and classifications. It differs from the schedule standardized interview in that it does not adhere to the exact wording and order of prepared questions, but rather the interviewer works from a list which describes the information required from each respondent. On the basis of the required information the interviewer structures questions suited to the comprehension level of the respondent. In describing the difference between the schedule and nonschedule standardized interview Richardson, Dohrenwend and Klein (1965) indicate that

> . . . the schedule standardized interviewer asks the same questions of each respondent and hopes this will have the same meaning, whereas the nonschedule interviewer formulates the classes of information he is seeking and hopes he can formulate the questions in such a way that they will have the same meaning for each respondent [p. 45].

This type of interview lends itself to work with heterogeneous sample groups.

The Nonstandardized Interview

The nonstandardized interview is designed to seek out a wide range of information about general areas which interest the researcher. There is no attempt to gather, from each respondent, similar and pre-determined data. The questions which are posed, flow from the interviewer's grasp of the total study. The nonstandardized interview often precedes the standardized format. When specific problems, requiring further investigation are identified within a general field, the standardized interview procedure is used to gather the necessary information.

Phillips (1966) suggests that the strength of the standardized interview lies in the context of justification which occurs as a result of the consistency in the interviewer's behavior and in the fact that the interview situation may be easily replicated. The advantage of the unstandardized interview lies within the context of discovery, for it is possible that a knowledgeable interviewer may be sufficiently stimulated by the respondent's answers to uncover valid information about the area under investigation.

The data required to satisfy the stated intents of this study fall into the realm of the teacher's private behaviors, his beliefs, perceptions, feelings and motivations. Considering the factors which have been outlined about the various interview formats, it appears that the schedule standardized interview, incorporating a degree of flexibility when required, represents the most suitable format to follow in this study.

Introductory Procedures for an Interview

The following represents a summary of the recommendations made by the Institute for Social Research (1969) regarding the introduction to an interview:

(1) The interviewer should identify himself to the interviewee and should indicate with whom he is associated;

(2) The interviewee should be made aware of the purpose for the interview through a statement which informs and stimulates his interest. If necessary, definitions of terms may be introduced at this point;

(3) It should be pointed out explicitly that the respondent will remain totally anonymous in the report which will be made; and;

(4) The respondent should be informed how he was chosen for the interview and he should also be given a general idea of whom the sample group is composed without exposing the names or addresses of the participants.

Atmosphere Required for a Good Interview

It is necessary to develop a rapport with the respondent which will provide valid and reliable data. Adam's (1958) views regarding the establishment of a suitable atmosphere in which to conduct interviews may be summarized as follows:

(1) The respondent must be made to experience a permissive atmosphere which allows him to express any feelings and thoughts that he wishes. The interviewer develops this permissive air by demonstrating to the respondent an attitude of total acceptance and understanding regardless of what is said.

(2) The interviewee must be made to feel that his responses are very important and that he is providing information for a worthwhile research project.

(3) During the entire interview, the interviewer must remain neutral in his dress, speech, and manner and must permit the respondent to remain in the spotlight at all times.

Setting for the Interview

The interview should take place in an environment in which the respondent feels at ease and which provides a quiet, private and comfortable atmosphere (Adams, 1958; Van Dalen, 1973). A high degree of concentration over a lengthy period of time can prove to be exhausting; suitable seating should be available in a quiet setting which permits uninterrupted concentration without unnecessary fatigue. Privacy is considered to be a very important factor. The respondent's answers may become biased because of the presence of even one additional individual (Adams, 1958).

Probing as Part of the Interview

Probes may be classified under two general headings, those which are included as part of an interview schedule and those which are created spontaneously by the interviewer, Adams (1958) suggests some broad principles regarding their use

> Probes must be asked (a) when the response is irrelevant to the question asked, (b) when an answer is unclear, (c) when an answer seems incomplete, and (d) when an answer is suspected of being untrue . . . the interviewer must know the objectives of questions and learn to recognize unclear, incomplete, and fallacious answers when they occur [p. 27].

Validity and Reliability

The validity and reliability of an interview are influenced by the wording and the order of the questions being asked. Additional influential factors according to Kahn and Cannell (1957) are: the background characteristics of the participants; psychological factors such as perceptions, attitudes, expectations, and motives of the participants; and various behavioral factors of the respondent and the interviewer. The careful selection of words, the pretesting of the schedule and the revision of the questions lead to the development of a schedule judged to be sufficiently valid for use in a study. The background characteristics, psychological and behavioral factors may be controlled by making the interviewer aware of these factors in himself and by training him to control for the biases resulting from these sources. Kahn and Cannell (1957) suggest that

> . . . the interview, like other measurement techniques, has great value and unique advantages, but that it also has many possibilities for inaccuracy. We therefore need to learn more about the sources of bias and to develop methods for eliminating them. We need to think through the process of the interview from beginning to end, in terms of its vulnerability to bias [p. 179].

Despite the fact that it is possible to build crude reliability checks directly into an interview schedule, and despite the fact that the interviewer may be well trained and may practise an approach which produces an atmosphere of permissiveness, the reliability factor of the data may be questioned. Wiersma (1969) suggests that "There is no methodological technique that can ensure the reliability of the data [p. 277]."

Summary of Chapter II

The first part of this chapter was devoted to a description of the literature pertinent to the problems related to classroom curriculum development. After a number of selected curriculum development models had been described, emphasis was placed on demonstrating a need for a study of the areas being questioned by various authorities.

The second part of this chapter was devoted to the description of a tentative classroom curriculum development model designed to permit comparisons between conceptualization(s) and actual practice.

The final part of the chapter dealt with the role of descriptive surveys in educational research and with a rationale for conducting this study using an interview procedure. It explained in some detail the various procedures to be followed when using this form of information gathering device. A brief discussion of the validity and reliability of the interview technique completed this portion of the chapter.

The next chapter describes the development of the instruments and their uses in this study.

CHAPTER III

METHODS OF INVESTIGATION AND RESEARCH PROCEDURES

Introduction

This chapter describes the research design and strategies of investigation employed in the study. The instrumentation, pilot study, selection and description of sample, as well as the methods of collecting and analyzing the data are reported.

Research Method

Fox (1969) suggests that

> . . . in educational research there are two conditions which occurring together suggest and justify the descriptive survey: First, that there is an absence of information about a problem of educational significance and second, that the situations which could generate that information do exist and are accessible to the researcher [p. 424].

Both conditions referred to by Fox, pervade the area of curriculum development at the classroom level. There is an absence of information regarding the elements which function to influence teachers in the development of curriculum and also an absence of data which relate the patterns of curriculum development that are followed. In order to gather data that would help to remove the present void in our understanding of classroom curriculum development, an interview schedule and two questionnaires were developed.

INSTRUMENTATION

Interview Schedule

The interview schedule was designed to gather data that would help to determine whether classroom teachers perceived themselves to be curriculum developers; to identify the elements that influence teacher decisions in curriculum development; and to clarify the patterns being used in curriculum development at the classroom level.

The questions comprising the standardized portion of the interview schedule were selected, ordered and phrased on the basis of knowledge derived from exploratory surveys, a pilot study, and from the experience of the researcher. Literature on research methods influenced the type of questions asked in the standardized portion of the interview.

Selltiz, Jahoda, Deutsch and Cook (1959) advise that:

> In asking about present or past behavior, experience has demonstrated that the most valid answers are obtained by specific rather than general questions [p. 252].

This advice was heeded and was incorporated into the items which made up the interview schedule (Appendix A). Although some general questions were included in the schedule, the majority were specific in nature.

Description of Items

At the outset the respondents were asked two specific questions to discover whether they perceived themselves as curriculum developers. The first item was designed to gather information relating to classroom teachers as a group while the second item was restricted to the respondent's view of himself.

An open ended question (Item 3) was used to encourage respondents to identify elements which influence teacher selection of starting points when developing classroom curricula. This type of question was included in order to avoid interviewer bias and to provide the opportunity for making comparisons between the elements mentioned by the respondents and the elements which the researcher named later when dealing with Items 5 to 14 inclusive.

Item four was intended to determine the degree to which teachers perceived themselves to be free to develop classroom curricula. This question was structured to permit a wide range of expressions regarding the degree of freedom which teachers experience.

Selltiz, Jahoda, Deutsch and Cook (1959) also suggested that:

> Specifying a concrete instance and then asking whether this instance is typical or atypical provides the subject with more cues for recall, and, in a sense, binds him to a reality that acts as an obstacle to distortion in response [p. 252].

For this reason the next ten items (5 to 14 inclusive) in the schedule mentioned the elements functioning to influence classroom curriculum development after a starting point had been selected, which respondents had identified in preliminary field studies. These elements provided respondents with cues for recall, and then respondents were given the opportunity to reject or accept the elements on the basis of past experience. This high degree of specificty was also introduced because it was found, through field testing, that the interview sessions were too lengthy when less specificity was used. Although the section was highly structured, Item 15 provided an open ended factor. Interviewees were invited to add to the list of elements which had been presented in Items 5 to 14.

Item 16 requested the respondents to rank order all of the elements identified by them in their responses to Items 5 to 15. To make this task possible all of the elements were printed on small cards and were placed before the respondents in random fashion.

In order to discover how teachers established whether things were going well in the classroom, Item 17 was devised:

(1) to discover what factors most often influence the teacher's decision that things were going well;

(2) to provide them with criteria for evaluating different teaching-learning situations described later in the schedule; and

(3) to discover whether any relationship exists between the order in which they ranked the criteria for determining whether things were going well and the curriculum development patterns which they used.

Items 18, 19, and 20 were constructed to help determine whether respondents believe it possible to plan good learning experiences for their pupils without first identifying specifically what they wish to accomplish.

Items 18, 19 and 20 were constructed to explore how respondents feel about the possibility of planning good learning experiences for their pupils without first identifying specifically what they wish to accomplish. The first question in this section was structured so that respondents would think of teachers generally while making the response. Item 19 focuses on the respondent specifically and attempts to discover whether he always knows what learnings pupils will derive before planning a method of instruction or beginning to interact with the pupils. The last item in this particular section was designed to determine the success factor associated with not identifying specific learnings directly following the establishment of a starting point.

The next four items, 21 to 24, form a section of the schedule designed to find out how the interviewees feel about the possibility of providing pupils with a good learning experience without planning in specific detail what is to be accomplished and how it is to be done. Item 21 relates to teachers in general while items 22 and 23 focus attention on the individual respondent to discover whether he has ever conducted teaching-learning experiences on the basis of a global idea of how and what is to be accomplished. The final item in this series provides the interviewees with the opportunity of suggesting reasons for planning generally rather than specifically before entering the interactive phase.

Items 25, 26, and 27 were developed to determine whether respondents follow a flexible route in curriculum development. Teachers are asked if there are times when they deviate from pre-determined specific plans. If they respond positively they are invited to describe why they deviate and with what results.

Four items were then designed to discover whether the interviewees, at times, follow a linear inflexible route in curriculum development. Item 28 invites them to take a stand from a general perspective, on whether there are times when specific plans should be followed exactly. Respondents are then asked whether they ever follow the inflexible route. Item 30 invites them to indicate why they follow the static route and Item 31 seeks to discover how respondents perceive the effects of the teaching-learning situation under such circumstances.

The final item of the interview schedule requests that interviewees select a starting point from the Province of Alberta Elementary Social Studies Handbook: Experiences in Decision Making and outline how a classroom curriculum has been developed. This was done in order to verify whether respondents are the type of curriculum developers they perceive themselves to be according to earlier responses, and to discover what patterns of curriculum development evolve when they are asked to provide details about a developed curriculum through a process of retrospection.

The interview was constructed in such a manner that by excluding the time used for the introduction, each interview could be completed in approximately forty-five minutes. The introduction required approximately ten minutes.

Introduction to Interview

An introduction which preceded each interview provided the respondents with the following background information:

(1) the name of the interviewer, along with a brief description of his elementary school teaching experience, and a statement regarding his present position;

(2) an awareness of the purpose for the interview and a definition of special terms that might be used during the session;

(3) how the respondent was selected for the interview and a brief description of the actual sample group being used;

(4) assurance that all respondents would remain totally anonymous in the report of the study and that they would each receive feedback on the findings;

(5) that there are no right or wrong answers to the items in contradictions in statements they made, they were not to be concerned because contradictions were possible and acceptable; and

(6) that complete honesty was paramount to the success of gathering data which might provide knowledge about classroom curriculum development.

Items one, three, four, and five were presented to emphasize the openness of the interview in which they could express any feelings and thoughts that they wished. Items two, four, and six were intended to help interviewees feel that they are contributing to a worthwhile research project.

Developmental Stages of the Interview Schedule

The interview schedule evolved through a number of stages of development. The initial stage was based on nonstandardized interviews conducted with four elementary school teachers and four graduate students. No attempt was made at the time to gather similar or pre-determined data from each respondent. Information about the general area of classroom curriculum development was needed first.

A schedule based on the information derived from the nonstandardized interviews, from the personal experience of the researcher, and from curriculum literature, was field tested with six elementary school teachers in Thunder Bay, Ontario. On the basis of this experience, revisions were made in the schedule in preparation for conducting the pilot study.

The pilot study indicated that the session had to be shortened for it was taking more than an hour to conduct each interview. The respondents showed signs of being exhausted at the conclusion of these lengthy sessions. Rather than using an open question to elicit descriptions of the elements which function to influence curriculum development following the selection of a starting point, ten elements were identified by the interviewer. The respondents were then asked to support or reject the presence of these elements in classroom curriculum development. In order to provide the subject with an opportunity to include elements not identified in the schedule, an item inviting them to identify additional elements was added.

The revised schedule was then used for three interviews, two with elementary school teachers and one with a graduate student. It was found that the sessions could be completed satisfactorily in approximately forty-five minutes

Validity

A panel of judges composed of three university professors and another panel composed of three graduate students were asked to examine the interview schedule items for use of words, order of items, and appropriateness to the study. The judges considered that the revised schedule possessed face validity.

Reliability

Since there are no methodological techniques available to ensure the reliability level of information collected through interviews other indicators of reliability were sought. All interviews were conducted by the same interviewer to contribute to the reliability of the findings. Comparative data are not available from other curriculum studies, therefore it was necessary to rely on the internal consistency shown between the responses given to parallel or related items.

Demographic Data Questionnaire

Personal as well as professional information about each subject was collected in order to test for any relationships among these factors and the curriculum development patterns which teachers follow. To determine the questionnaire's clarity and the ease with which it could be completed following the interview, it was field tested on ten elementary school teachers in urban and suburban Alberta school districts. The format was found to be suitable. No further revisions were made in the questionnaire following the pilot study. The questionnaire is presented in Appendix B.

Patterns of Classroom Curriculum Development Questionnaire

The questionnaire (found in Appendix C) was developed to serve three main functions: to identify the classroom curriculum development patterns used by teachers; to shorten the length of interviewing time required to gather information; and to provide a reliability check on some of the data collected by means of the interview.

The wording used in the questionnaire was similar to that used for the interview schedule. Since the questionnaire was to be completed following the interview, it was assumed that the subjects, completing the questionnaire, would not experience comprehension difficulties.

The questionnaire was comprised of four sections. Section one contained four questions, each suggesting a different point at which specific learnings might be identified during the three phases of the teaching-learning process. The first point was located in the preactive phase, directly after the starting point had been identified. The second point was also located in the preactive phase but this time was followed by the development of a specific instructional design. The location of the third point was in the interactive phase and point four was found in the postactive portion of the total teaching-learning process. The respondents were invited to indicate the extent to which they used the four points according to a scale composed of five qualifiers from "always" to "never".

Section two was developed in order to discover the degree of success that respondents perceived themselves to experience when they identified specific learnings at the four points which were described in Section one. The participants recorded their success levels on a five point scale ranging from "very successful" to "very unsuccessful". A "not applicable" column was provided for those who did not identify specific learnings at all four points which were mentioned.

The third section directed the participants to indicate the points they found best to identify specific learnings in Social Studies. The four previously described points of identification were listed in four spaces along with another space to add points that had not been listed. This section was designed to gather data for comparison between the point thought to be best and the one identified as most often used.

The final section of the questionnaire invited the subjects to rank order the previously described points at which specific learnings might be identified. A space was provided for those who wished to enter any additional point which they used. Section four made a comparison with section one possible, in order to determine the reliability of the responses.

The same two panels of experts who declared the interview schedule to be valid, judged that the Patterns of Classroom Curriculum Development Questionnaire has face validity.

PILOT STUDY

Purpose of Pilot Study

The pilot study was conducted in March, 1973. Its purposes were (1) to determine whether the developed instruments were valid for the purpose of gathering information to help answer the five research questions on which the study was based; (2) to establish a suitable length of time for the interview; (3) to develop the most suitable introductory format; and (4) to develop skill in the role of an interviewer.

Design of the Pilot Study

Ten teachers were contacted through school principals and were invited to participate. All ten individuals agreed to take part in the pilot study. Eight of the teachers were from a Public School in Sherwood Park and the remaining two were from a Separate School in Edmonton. All of the teachers taught Social Studies at the grade four, five, or six levels and were making use of the Province of Alberta Elementary Social Studies Handbook: *Experiences in Decision Making*.

The in-school interviews were conducted in areas which provided privacy for uninterrupted sessions. With the cooperation of the school principals it was possible, in eight of the cases, to hold the interviews during regular school hours. In two cases the interviewees preferred a time prior to school opening in the morning.

Each respondent granted permission to have the sessions recorded on audio tape. This provided for more accurate analysis of the data later and it also made it possible for the interviewer to analyze his interaction with the respondents. At the conclusion of the interview each teacher in the pilot study group was provided with two questionnaires. The teacher was asked to complete and return these as soon as possible. All questionnaires were completed and returned within one week.

Results of the Pilot Study

The work with classroom teachers in the pilot study provided an opportunity to examine the feasibility of employing the three instruments in the main research study. The participants, through their responses, not only indicated that the structure of the interview schedule was suitable for the purpose of gathering information related to the research questions but they also indicated that it had the effect of giving them new insights into their own teaching behavior. Each of the questionnaires was judged to be suitable for the purpose of gathering the required data since only a few problems arose during the pilot study. Provisions were made to overcome these problems in the following ways:

(1) The interview schedule was revised in order to decrease the time required to complete the interview. This was accomplished by increasing the specificity of items five to fourteen inclusive. Elements influencing classroom curriculum development following the selection of a starting point were identified by the interviewer rather than expecting the elements to be named by the interviewees.

(2) The directions given to participants for responding to Section four of the Patterns of Classroom Curriculum Development Questionnaire were misinterpreted by a few individuals and therfore were reworded in order to avoid ambiguity. The instructions read as follows:

> Consider the total spectrum of planning and executing a Social Studies learning experience and rank order the points at which you identify specifically what your pupils will get from the experience. Allow the numeral 1 to represent the point which is most commonly used and 5 to represent the point which is used the least.

Respondents entered the numeral 1 opposite the point which they used most often and the numeral 5 opposite the point which they used least often and left the remaining points unranked. The instructions were changed to read as follows:

> Rank order the points at which you identified specifically what your pupils will get from a Social Studies experience.
>
> Allow the numeral 1 to represent the point which is most commonly used, the numeral 2 to represent the point which is used to a lesser extent and so on.

All other directions were easily understood and were retained in their original form.

(3) On a few occasions during the first few interviews, respondents requested that questions be repeated and in two

instances they requested permission to view the question which had been presented to them orally. Since there appeared to be no relationship between the particular items and the number of requests received for repetition or for viewing privileges, it was concluded that these requests were being made for one or both of the following reasons:

(i) the oral presentation of the interviewer was poor and therefore required repetition; or

(ii) some people tend to be more visually oriented for comprehension purposes and therefore prefer to see the item to which they are expected to react.

It was decided to print each main item on a separate card and to present it to the interviewee immediately prior to the oral presentation of the item. When this was done for the remaining interviews, requests for repetition of items terminated.

Members of the pilot study encountered no difficulties with the Demographic Data Questionnaire and since it appeared to provide all the necessary information, no changes were made in this instrument.

The introduction to the interview sessions seemed to relax the respondents and provide them with the feeling that they were personally important and were contributing information which would help others in the teaching profession. They were cooperative and appeared to be anxious to provide truthful responses to the items which were presented. None of the respondents experienced apparent difficulty with the meaning of words and expressions used by the interviewer.

THE SAMPLE

Criteria for Selection

The population selected for this study was composed of teachers enployed by the Edmonton Public and the Edmonton Separate School Boards. A random sample of forty teachers teaching Social Studies at the grade four, five, or six levels who were using the Elementary Social Studies Handbook, Experiences in Decision Making, (1971) was selected. Attention was focused on this particular group because Experiences in Decision Making (1971) suggests that

> The curriculum allows for decisions to be made by those who will be affected by them. The objectives and content prescribed by the Department of Education are stated in the very broadest of terms. Within this framework, called the master curriculum, teachers and students can practise responsible decision-making by planning together learning experiences which are significant and relevant to their own lives [p. 5].

Teachers using this Handbook are expected to be classroom curriculum developers. The sample was restricted to those who worked at the grade four, five, or six levels in order to reduce the effect of the pupil age variable which might influence the classroom curriculum development process practised by teachers. Time for interviewing placed restrictions on the size of the sample group. Demographic data concerning the subjects in the sample were collected by means of a questionnaire. Information describing the sample group is shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1

DESCRIPTION OF THE RESEARCH SAMPLE

Characteristics	Category	Frequency
Sex	Male	15
	Female	25
Age	Under 20 years	1
	20 to 29 years	20
	30 to 39 years	9
	40 to 49 years	8
	50 to 59 years	2
	60 years and over	0
Teaching Certificate	Professional	32
	Standard Elementary	5
	Standard Secondary	3
	Junior Elementary	0
	Provisional	0
	Conditional	0
	Other	0
Teaching Experience	2 years or less	6
	3 to 5 years	10
	6 to 10 years	11
	11 to 15 years	4
	16 to 20 years	6
	21 years or more	3

Characteristics	Category	Frequency
Post Secondary Education	1 year	0
	2 years	2
	3 years	5
	4 years	24
	5yyears	6
	6 years or more	3
Sources of Professional Training	University of Alberta	30
	University of Calgary	3
	University of Lethbridge	1
	University out of Province	10
	Other	4
University Courses That Have Proven to be of Assistance in Curriculum Development	None	16
	One	5
	Two	9
	Three	4
	Four	4
	Five	1
	Six or more	1
Professional Experiences That Have Proven to be of Assistance in Curriculum Development	None	13
	One	9
	Two	12
	Three	4
	Four	1
	Five	0
	Six or more	1

Sample for Edmonton Public School System

Using a table of random numbers, forty teachers were selected from a list provided by the Edmonton Public School Board. This list contained the names of 592 teachers, who according to School Board records were teaching Social Studies at the grade four, five, or six levels and were using *Experiences in Decision Making* in their programs.

Carrying a letter of introduction provided by the School Board, visits were made by the researcher to the various schools in which the potential respondents were located. The visits were made in the order in which the forty prospective candidates were identified and appeared on the short list. In each case a meeting was first held with the school principal or the principal's representative, during which time the purpose and the nature of the research was described. Through the cooperation of these school authorities, permission was granted to approach the teachers who appeared on the list. In most cases meetings were arranged immediately between the prospective member of the sample group and the researcher. During this meeting brief introductions took place, the teacher was informed of the purpose for the study, he was told how he had been identified as a prospective candidate, and he was also given a approximate idea of how much of his time would be required. Following the presentation of this information, he was invited to ask questions about matters which he felt required further explanation. After all the questions had been answered, a suitable time for conducting the interview was established.

Personal contact was made with the first thirty-four people whose names appeared on the short list before twenty individuals who met the established criteria agreed to participate in the study as representatives of the Edmonton Public School System. Of the fourteen who refused or were rejected, four claimed to be too busy to take part and the remaining ten teachers were either not teaching Social Studies or were not available at the school that was indicated on the master list. .

Sample from the Edmonton Separate School System

The Edmonton Separate School System administrative staff provided the names of forty teachers, who according to School Board records, were teaching Social Studies at the grade four, five or six levels and who were using Experiences in Decision Making in their classroom programs. The names were obtained by using a computerized random selected process.

Initial contact with prospective members of the sample group was arranged. It was necessary to contact thirty-six teachers whose names appeared on the list before twenty participants were secured to represent the Edmonton Separate School System in this study. Of the sixteen persons who were contacted, but who did not take part, three declared themselves to be much too busy to become involved in this project, and the remaining thirteen people were either not teaching Social Studies, were not teaching Social Studies at the grade four, five, or six levels, or were not available at the school which was indicated.

DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES

The Time and Setting for Interviews

A time suited for the interview was selected by the interviewee when the initial personal contact was made. Most of the interviews were conducted during the regular school day. This was made possible by the fact that teachers gave up their preparation times and in cases where this was not possible, school principals, through various internal arrangements, freed teachers from classroom duty, in order to permit them to take part in the study. Fourteen interviews were conducted during periods which could not be classified as active teaching times. These sessions were held prior to school opening, during lunch breaks, and at the end of the official school day. In twelve of these cases the respondents indicated preference for this particular arrangement. In two cases it was impossible to arrange for a period which was most preferred by the interviewee.

In every instance the interview was conducted in an area which provided privacy and comfort for an uninterrupted session, in the respondent's school. Although the rooms varied in size, in their decor, and in the purpose for which they were originally designed, they all provided suitable interview settings.

Introduction Preceding the Interview

An introduction, lasting for approximately ten minutes, preceded each interview session. The intent during this interval, was to influence the interviewee's anticipatory set in such a manner that a favourable rapport would be established and the individual would feel at ease about the interview which was to follow. It was also hoped that the respondent would be convinced of the importance of the study and of his contribution to its success.

The respondents were informed that there were no answers which were more correct than others and that if the interviewer was aware of the right answers, the interview, as well as the entire study, would be superfluous. Stress was placed on the importance of providing information which would give insights into how the interviewee actually developed classroom curriculum rather than suggesting how they thought curriculum should be developed. Assurance was given that all personal data collected would be respected and treated in strictest confidence, and that all respondents would remain anonymous when the report was written.

In order to establish a high level of validity in answers given by respondents, time was devoted to making certain that key terms and expressions would be understood in the same manner by all of the participants. Definitions for the following were provided by the interviewer: curriculum, classroom curriculum, classroom curriculum development, intended learnings, specific learnings, specific instructional design, specific objectives, starting point, general area of concentration, general objectives, preactive phase, interactive phase, and the postactive phase.

Recording Information

A small audio cassette tape recorder, containing a tape in ready position, for one hour of recording time, was brought into the interview area, concealed in a brief case. Each respondent was advised of the recorder's presence and was asked for permission to tape the session so that the interviewer might be freed of note keeping during the live interaction. Assurance was given that the tape would be erased as soon as the necessary information had been transcribed. The tape recorder contained a built in microphone making it possible to leave the unit in an unobtrusive position in order to record what transpired in each session. Every respondent agreed to permit the recording to be made and in each case no apparent concern was demonstrated for the recorder's presence once the interviewing commenced.

Interview Procedure

The major questions were read to the interviewee following the exact order of the established schedule. As each new question was read orally a card containing an exact copy of the question was presented to the respondent for viewing purposes. Probing questions were asked as the need for them became apparent to the interviewer. A copy of Experiences in Decision Making was made available to the participant throughout the entire interview period.

Distribution and Collection of Questionnaires

At the conclusion of the interview, copies of the Demographic Data Questionnaire and the Patterns of Curriculum Development Questionnaire were provided to each interviewee. Oral directions were then given to ensure proper completion of the two questionnaires. Each respondent was provided with the opportunity to ask questions for clarification purposes. Stamped self-addressed envelopes were provided to each respondent and they were invited to return the completed questionnaires as soon as it was possible for them to do so. All questionnaires were completed and returned within a period of two weeks.

TREATMENT OF DATA

Inspection, and simple frequency counts were used to analyze the collected data. Chi-square tests of independence were conducted and the Yates' correction for continuity was incorporated when it was required in order to find out what demographic factors were significantly related to the patterns of classroom curriculum development practised by teachers. The NONP10 computer program, available at the University of Alberta, was used for making the necessary chi-square calculations.

SUMMARY

This chapter has provided an over-all view of the procedures which were followed in the study. A description of the following was provided: (1) the research method used; (2) the development of the three instruments; (3) the conduct of the pilot study and how it influenced the main study; (4) the composition of the sample group and how it was selected; (5) the procedures for gathering the data; and (6) the general procedures followed in treating the data in order to answer the research questions.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION RELATED TO CLASSROOM CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

Introduction

This chapter reports findings from the interview sessions and from the completed questionnaires. The presentation of data follows the order in which it was collected. Each of the item making up the interview schedule is stated and a description of the responses follows. The data originating from the questionnaire are reported in a similar manner.

Responses to Interview Schedule

Each of the thirty-one items presented in this section is found in the interview schedule (Appendix A).

Item 1 What is your reaction to the idea that classroom teachers are curriculum developers?

The majority of respondents reported that they believed classroom teachers to be curriculum developers, and thirty-four people insisted that it was imperative that this be the case.

Four individuals felt that teachers were not classroom curriculum developers. They suggested that in most cases teachers simply follow provincially and locally approved textbooks and/or course outlines and do not give any consideration to what specific learnings should or might occur in their classrooms other than those specified by others.

Table 2 shows the number and percentage of responses in reply to the first interview item.

Item 2 Are you a classroom curriculum developer?

Two of the individuals who had previously indicated that teachers generally did not develop classroom curricula, suggested that they considered themselves to be exceptions. The other two respondents held fast to their original stand and did not exclude themselves from the ranks of all teachers. Thirty-eight teachers answered "yes" to the question.

Table 3 shows the number and percentage of responses in reply to the second interview item.

Item 3 Think about a recent experience in Social Studies and describe how you established your starting point.

In every case interviewees mentioned at least one but not more than three elements which influence their selection of an area of concentration. The most often repeated expression was "I was personally interested in the area". On one occasion, a teacher had exclaimed "Isn't that awful!" after suggesting that the starting point was selected on the basis of personal interest and the availability of resources. Probing led the teacher to explain that she had always been taught that the student must come first in curriculum matters and that it was a bit surprising to become aware of the fact that her practice did not conform with this line of reasoning.

TABLE 2

DO CLASSROOM TEACHERS DEVELOP CURRICULUM?

Response		Frequency	Percentage of Total Response
Yes		36	90%
No		4	10%
	Total	40	100%

TABLE 3

ARE YOU A CLASSROOM CURRICULUM DEVELOPER?

Response	Frequency	Percentage of Total Response
Yes	38	95%
No	2	5%
Total	48	100%

The personal background and values of the teacher were considered to be most influential (32.1%) in selecting a starting point for curriculum development. The next most often mentioned elements are the availability of resources (19%), the provincial guide (17.9%), and the student's needs and interests (16.7%). The difference in frequency among these is so negligible that they may be considered of equal importance. Current issues at a local, national or international level represent 9.5% of all influencing elements mentioned. The following three elements: the need to follow a logical sequence (2.4%); the influence of school administrators (1.2%); and the influence of other teachers (1.2%) are relatively minor influences.

Table 4 shows the number and percentage of responses in reply to Item 3.

Item 4 To what extent do you feel free to make decisions about the learnings for pupils in your classroom?

The degree of contemplation required by subjects before replying to this item was much shorter than the time taken to respond to items 1 and 2. The positive responses were quite emphatic, ranging from expressions such as "quite free" to "completely free". The one negative response was rather mild and reflected more uncertainty than a conviction that teachers lack freedom to make decisions about learnings for their pupils.

Table 5 shows the number and percentage of responses in reply to the fourth interview item.

TABLE 4

ELEMENTS WHICH INFLUENCE TEACHER SELECTION OF A STARTING POINT FOR CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

Elements	Number of Responses	Percentage of Total Response
Personal Background and Values	27	32.1%
Resources	16	19.0%
Provincial Guide	15	17.9%
Students	14	16.7%
Current Issues	8	9.5%
Logical Sequence	2	2.4%
School Administrators	1	1.2%
Other Teachers	1	1.2%
Total	84	100.0%

Items 5 to 16 inclusive These items were designed to help identify the elements which most influence classroom curriculum development following the establishment of a starting point.

It was unanimously agreed by the interviewees that the following elements, listed in rank order, influenced the specific learnings that occurred in the classroom: (1) the student's needs and interests; (2) the teacher's personal background and values; (3) the availability of resources; (4) the provincial guide; and (5) the internal school organization. Through a process of introspection, the respondents were able to describe situations which had occurred to them, related to each of the stated elements.

Although the participants agreed that the following elements: (1) other teachers; (2) school principals; (3) system administrators; (4) parents; and (5) friends and relatives, also listed in rank order, could influence the specific learnings which occurred in the classroom, they experienced difficulty in being able to recall instances when this had happened to them personally. In five cases respondents suggested that although elements such as, parents, friends and relatives, as well as other teachers had never played a role in influencing the specific learnings of their pupils, they indicated that this could change at any time because of circumstances.

When the respondents were invited to identify other elements which might influence the specific social studies learnings they select for the pupils in their classroom, fifteen individuals referred to the influence of media, ten people commented on community factors, and one respondent described the influence of professional

TABLE 5

TO WHAT EXTENT DO YOU FEEL FREE TO MAKE DECISIONS ABOUT THE LEARNINGS FOR PUPILS IN YOUR CLASSROOM?

Description of Response	Frequency of Response	Percentage of Total Response
Free to Make Decisions (Varying degree of freedom ranging from quite free to completely free)	39	97.5%
Not Certain	1	2.5%
Total	40	100.0%

literature. Since fewer than half of the interviewees mentioned any one of these elements it was decided to exclude them from the rank ordering of elements which appear in Table 6.

Weightings were calculated by assigning a value of ten to a first ranked item, a value of nine to a second ranked item and so on until a tenth ranked item was assigned a value of one. On the basis of these weightings student needs and interests were ranked as being of prime importance receiving a total weighting of 334 out of a possible score of 400. Despite this high ranking, only ten respondents or twenty-five percent of the sample, ranked the students in first position. Twenty-four subjects or sixty percent of the sample, ranked students in the first or second categories.

The teacher's personal background and values and the provincial guide were ranked second and fourth respectively, with weightings of 313 and 298. Twelve respondents or 30% of the sample group, placed these elements in first position in their individual ranking.

Resources were ranked in third position with a weighting of 312, by fifteen respondents or 37.5% of the sample.

Internal school organization, other teachers, school principals, and other school administrators, each a little more remote from the classroom teacher, were ranked fifth, sixth, seventh, and eighth respectively with weightings of 202, 190, 170, and 156.

The final two elements, parents, as well as friends and relatives of the teacher, were ranked in position 9 and 10, with weightings of 132 and 93. Twenty-one interviewees, or 52.5% of the

TABLE 6

ELEMENTS WHICH INFLUENCE TEACHER IDENTIFICATION OF SPECIFIC LEARNINGS FOLLOWING THE SELECTION OF A STARTING POINT FOR CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

Elements	Frequency of Rank Ordered Elements										Total*
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Weightings
Students	10	14	4	8	2	1		8			334
Personal Background and Values	12	7	7	4	4	3	1		1	1	313
Resources	4	9	15	5	5		1		1		312
Provincial Guide	12	6	2	8	5	2		3	1	1	298
Internal School Organization	1		6	5	6	7	4	4	3	4	202
Other Teachers		2	2	3	9	3	11	4	4	2	190
Principals		1	1	2	5	7	11	5	7	1	170
System Administrators	1	1	1	3	1	8	4	8	9	4	156
Parents			1	1	1	8	4	11	8	6	132
Friends and Relatives			1	1	2	1	4	4	6	21	93

*Weightings were calculated by assigning a value of 10 to a first ranked item and so on.

participants, ranked friends and relatives in last position. None of the respondents ranked either of these two elements in first or second position.

Item 17 What tells you that things are going well in your classroom?

The interviewees, either spontaneously or through probing described a number of signs that they looked for in order to establish whether things were going well in their classrooms. Responses such as the following were common:

> When pupils are happy and contented I know that things are going well.
>
> I look to see how busy the pupils are.
>
> I can tell by the amount of interest that the students are showing.
>
> I know that things are going well when pupils know how to do their work.
>
> I look to see how the pupils are participating.
>
> I can tell by the way they do on tests.

The pilot study demonstrated that it was possible to fit each sign mentioned by a respondent into one of the following four categories: motiviation, involvement, achievement, and application. Motivation represents the level of interest, enthusiasm and contentment demonstrated by the students. Involvement is concerned with the nature and degree of physical and mental activity demonstrated by the people in the classroom setting. Achievement included the level of comprehension and retention of learnings. Application represented the ability to use learnings in new but related situations and the ability to recognize new but related problems. During the main study, when respondents were asked to place their individual criteria into the four categories, they experienced no difficulty with the task. The categories seemed to cover all aspects of the teacher's evaluation of how well things were going.

When the respondents were asked to rank order the four categories of motivation, involvement, achievement, and application in terms of their importance in helping them to know whether things were going well in the classroom, twenty-two members or 55% of the group ranked motivation in first position; 16 people or 40% of the respondents ranked involvement in first position; one person or 2.5% of the participants ranked achievement in first place; and one individual or 2.5% of the group ranked application in first place.

On the basis of total weightings calculated by assigning a value of 4 to a first ranked criterion and so on down, motivation received the highest score of 132 out of a possible 160, followed by involvement with a weighting of 131. Achievement and application ranked third and fourth with weightings of seventy-nine and sixty-four respectively.

Table 7 shows that motivation and the degree and nature of involvement are of prime concern to the subjects in this study for the purpose of knowing whether things are going well in the classroom, while the mastery of concept or achievement and the application of concepts are of secondary concern.

Item 18 Is it possible to plan a good learning experience without first identifying specifically what is to be accomplished?

TABLE 7

WHAT TELLS YOU THAT THINGS ARE GOING WELL IN YOUR CLASSROOM?

Criterion	Frequency of Rank Ordered Criteria				Total* Weightings
	1	2	3	4	
Motivation	22	12	2	4	132
Degree and Nature of Involvement	16	20	3	1	131
Achievement (Mastery of concepts)	1	3	24	12	79
Application of Concepts	1	5	11	23	64

*Weightings were calculated by assigning a value of 4 to a first ranked criterion and so on.

As table 8 indicates, 34 respondents were positive and quite receptive to this possibility while 6 were negative and strongly opposed.

Item 19 Are there times when you do not know specifically what you wish the pupils to accomplish before you begin to plan a method of instruction or begin to interact with your pupils?

Table 9 demonstrates that 6 individuals reported that they know specifically what they wish pupils to accomplish before planning the instructional procedure or commencing to interact with the students while the greater majority composed of 34 respondents reported that they do not always have this knowledge.

Item 20 Have the learning experiences been generally successful when you have not known specifically what you wished the pupils to accomplish before you started to plan a method of instruction or started to interact with your pupils?

Table 10 illustrates that 33 respondents perceived the learning experiences under these conditions to have been successful. The question was not applicable to the six individuals who had answered in the negative to question 19, and only one person suggested that the learning experiences were not generally successful when this procedure was followed.

Item 21 Is it possible to provide the pupils with a good learning experience without planning in specific detail what you wish the pupils to accomplish and specifically how you will perform the instructional task?

Table 11 shows that 34 or 85% of the respondents were positive in their response to this question. The 6 people who responded

TABLE 8

IS IT POSSIBLE TO PLAN A GOOD LEARNING EXPERIENCE WITHOUT FIRST IDENTIFYING SPECIFICALLY WHAT IS TO BE ACCOMPLISHED?

Response		Frequency	Percentage of Total Response
Yes		34	85%
No		6	15%
	Total	40	100%

TABLE 9

ARE THERE TIMES WHEN YOU DO NOT KNOW SPECIFICALLY WHAT YOU WISH THE PUPILS TO ACCOMPLISH BEFORE YOU BEGIN TO PLAN A METHOD OF INSTRUCTION OR BEGIN TO INTERACT WITH THE PUPILS?

Response		Frequency	Percentage of Total Response
Yes		6	15%
No		34	85%
	Total	40	100%

TABLE 10

HAVE THE LEARNING EXPERIENCES BEEN GENERALLY SUCCESSFUL WHEN YOU HAVE NOT KNOWN SPECIFICALLY WHAT YOU WISHED THE PUPILS TO ACCOMPLISH BEFORE YOU STARTED TO PLAN A METHOD OF INSTRUCTION OR STARTED TO INTERACT WITH YOUR PUPILS?

Response		Frequency	Percentage of Total Response
Yes		33	82.5%
No		1	2.5%
Not Applicable		6	15.0%
	Total	40	100.0%

TABLE 11

IS IT POSSIBLE TO PROVIDE PUPILS WITH A GOOD LEARNING EXPERIENCE WITHOUT PLANNING IN SPECIFIC DETAIL WHAT YOU WISH TO ACCOMPLISH AND HOW YOU WILL PERFORM THE INSTRUCTIONAL TASK?

Response		Frequency	Percentage of Total Response
Yes		34	85%
No		6	15%
	Total	40	100%

negatively were the same individuals who also responded negatively to item 18.

Item 22 Are there times when you do not plan in specific detail what you wish to accomplish and how you will conduct the instructional task before you begin the interactive phase of a learning experience?

Table 12 indicates that 8 interviewees responded positively to item 22. Five of these people answered item 21 in a negative fashion, suggesting that it is impossible to have successful learning experiences unless specific learnings and procedures are established before instruction begins. Three respondents replied positively to item 21 but despite this fact personally preferred to plan in greater detail before commencing with instruction. Thirty-two interviewees answered negatively to item 22, suggesting that they did not always plan in specific detail the learnings which would occur and the procedures which would be followed. Thirty members of this group answered item 21 positively agreeing that it was possible to have successful learning experiences without this specific type of planning while 2 members of the group felt that it was simply impossible.

Item 23 Have the learning experiences been generally successful when you have commenced instruction without identifying what specific learnings would be stressed and what specific procedures would be followed?

Table 13 demonstrates that 30 respondents felt generally that they had successful learning experiences when they did not establish what specific learnings would be stressed and what specific procedures would be followed before commencing with instruction. The responses

TABLE 12

ARE THERE TIMES WHEN YOU DO NOT PLAN IN SPECIFIC DETAIL WHAT LEARNING WILL RESULT AND WHAT PROCEDURES WILL BE FOLLOWED BEFORE COMMENCING WITH THE INSTRUCTIONAL PHASE?

Response		Frequency	Percentage of Total Response
Yes		8	20%
No		32	80%
	Total	40	100%

TABLE 13

HAVE THE LEARNING EXPERIENCES BEEN GENERALLY SUCCESSFUL WHEN YOU HAVE NOT KNOWN WHAT SPECIFIC LEARNINGS YOU WERE GOING TO STRESS AND WHAT SPECIFIC PROCEDURES YOU WOULD FOLLOW BEFORE COMMENCING INSTRUCTION?

Response		Frequency	Percentage of Total Response
Yes		30	75%
No		2	5%
Not Applicable		8	20%
	Total	40	100%

of eight interviewees were recognized as not applicable to item 23 since they had replied to item 22 in the affirmative. Two persons who had responded to item 22 by suggesting that they did not always identify specific learnings and specific procedures before commencing with instruction, indicated through their answer to item 23, that on those occasions they did not experience successful learning situations.

Item 24 Why did you commence instruction without establishing in advance the specific learnings which would be stressed and the specific procedures which would be followed?

With the exception of eight people, who establish in advance specific learnings and specific procedures before commencing with instruction, each of 32 respondents mentioned one or two reasons for not following this format.

Seven of the sixteen participants indicated that their only reason for not identifying specific learnings and procedures before commencing with instruction was due to the fact that they either lacked time or were not able to make good use of it when it was available. The other nine individuals stated positive reasons for practising this procedure and suggested that time only played a role on occasion. Two of these teachers indicated that they were also influenced by the fact that they wished to operate a democratic rather than an autocratic type of classroom and for this reason tried to provide students with an opportunity to make decisions about their learnings. They felt that often these decisions could not be made until the members of the class had started to interact with one another. Four people from this group suggested that they were influenced by personal curiosity and by the desire for spontaneity in classroom experiences. Three individuals were influenced in their behavior by past experience which demonstrated that this approach was not suited to their needs.

Twelve interviewees suggested that they followed this procedure because they wanted their pupils to take part in deciding what things would be learned and wished to avoid the development of a teacher centered program. Two of these individuals also mentioned that time was an influencing factor in their case, while one member of this group said that his personal curiosity about what might happen and his desire for spontaneity also led him to operate in this manner.

Nine respondents indicated that personal curiosity about what would happen and the desire for an element of surprise through spontaneity, motivated them to follow this procedure. Four of these people were also influenced by the time factor; one of the group members was influenced by the fact that he wished to avoid a teacher centered program; and one of these persons had learned through past experience that this particular format did not work for him.

Six interviewees stressed that they had learned through past experience that this type of planning did not work for them. Three members of this group were also influenced by the time factor and one person was motivated by curiosity and a desire for an element of surprise through spontaneity.

Responses from eight participants fell into the not applicable category because they habitually identify specific learnings and procedures before commencing with instruction.

Table 14 shows the number and percentage of the responses to item 24.

TABLE 14

THE REASON WHY TEACHERS COMMENCE INSTRUCTION WITHOUT ESTABLISHING SPECIFIC LEARNINGS AND SPECIFIC PROCEDURES

Response	Frequency	Percentage of Total Response
1. Time for teacher planning is in short supply and is not used wisely.	16	37%
2. To allow for pupil participation and to prevent the development of a teacher centered program.	12	28%
3. Teacher curiosity and the desire for spontaneity.	9	21%
4. Teacher's lack of success when advance identification of specific learnings was used.	6	14%
*Total	43	100%

*Total N is greater than forty because some respondents gave more than one reason.

Item 25 Have you ever planned a learning experience in specific detail and then failed to follow it?

Table 15 indicates that 38 respondents had this experience and two individuals have always executed their specific plans.

Item 26 Why did you deviate from the specific plan which you had developed?

Table 16 shows that there were four main reasons why teachers deviated from their specific plans: student reaction; lack of resources; the time factor; and poor planning. Thirty-two respondents did not follow their plans because of various student reactions, ranging from complete disinterest in what had been planned, to the sudden recognition of a need that had to be satisfied. The lack of resources influenced 4 individuals to modify their established plans. One person was influenced to change his plans because of a lack of time to execute them as they were planned. Poor planning was the reason given by one interviewee for not following an established plan. Because two participants had responded in a negative manner to question 25 their answers to question 26 were classified as not applicable.

Item 27 Were the learning experiences successful when you deviated from your specific plan?

Table 17 demonstrates that 30 respondents felt that their deviation from the specific plan led to a successful learning experience; 6 people were not certain because there were times when the deviation had led to an improved learning experience and other times when it did not do so; 2 individuals felt that the learning experience was not

TABLE 15

HAVE YOU EVER PLANNED A LEARNING EXPERIENCE IN SPECIFIC DETAIL AND THEN FAILED TO FOLLOW IT?

Response		Frequency	Percentage of Total Response
Yes		38	95%
No		2	5%
	Total	40	100%

TABLE 16

WHY DID YOU DEVIATE FROM THE SPECIFIC PLAN WHICH YOU HAD DEVELOPED?

Response	Frequency	Percentage of Total Response
Type of student reaction	32	80.0%
Lack of resources	4	10.0%
Time to execute plan	1	2.5%
Faulty planning	1	2.5%
Not applicable	2	5.0%
Total	40	100.0%

TABLE 17

WERE THE LEARNING EXPERIENCES SUCCESSFUL WHEN YOU DEVIATED FROM YOUR SPECIFIC PLAN?

Response		Frequency	Percentage of Total Response
Yes		30	75.0%
Yes and No		6	15.0%
No		2	5.0%
Not applicable		2	5.0%
	Total	40	100.0%

improved; and in two cases the answer was classed as not applicable because the respondents had answered negatively to item 25.

Item 28 Are there times when you should follow your specific plans just as they had been established?

Thirty-two respondents agreed that there are times when the teacher should follow specific plans just as they had been established, while eight interviewees suggested that there was no time when this should be practised.

Item 29 Why have you followed your specific plans exactly as they had been struck?

Thirty respondents described various circumstances under which they have followed their specific plans just as they had been established. Eight interviewees did not contribute information to this question because they had responded negatively to item 28, and for this reason their responses had to be classified as not applicable.

Table 18 shows that individuals, on 17 occasions, mentioned that they had followed their specific plans just as they were structured because the specific learnings were important as prerequisites to further learning. On five occasions it was suggested that the specific plans were followed when the learning experience was proceeding as expected. It was mentioned three times that deviations were not made because the teachers were convinced that their plans were the best and could not be improved, another three respondents did not modify things because they had spent a great deal of time developing the plans and therefore wanted to execute them regardless

TABLE 18

WHY HAVE YOU FOLLOWED YOUR SPECIFIC PLANS EXACTLY AS THEY HAD BEEN STRUCK?

Response	Frequency	Percentage of Total Response
Specific learnings were deemed to be prerequisites to further learnings.	17	41%
The learning experience was progressing as expected.	5	12%
Was convinced that the established plan was the best possible.	3	7%
Teacher commitment to plan.	3	7%
Avoids the waste of scarce time and permits completion of the course.	4	10%
Give pupils a sense of security.	1	2%
Provides the teacher with a feeling of security.	1	2%
Not applicable.	8	19%
Total	42*	100%

*Total N is greater than forty because two respondents gave more than one reason.

of the consequences. A desire to make the best possible use of scarce time and a feeling that a certain area had to be covered was mentioned four times as a reason for adhering to an established course. It was mentioned once that pupils were provided with a sense of security and it was also suggested once that by following an established plan it gave the teacher a secure feeling.

Item 30 Were the learning experiences successful when you followed your plans exactly as they had been struck?

Table 19 indicates that twenty-three respondents reported that the learning experiences were successful when they followed their specific plans in detail; seven interviewees were not certain, for at times the experiences were successful and at other times they were not; two participants suggested that their experiences were not successful; and eight teachers had their responses classified as not applicable because they answered item 28 in a negative manner.

Item 31 Select a starting point which you have used from Experiences in Decision Making and describe the curriculum plan which you developed.

Table 20 demonstrates that all respondents using Experiences in Decision Making as a starting point have developed classroom curricula. Seventeen of the respondents identified specific objectives during and following interaction, while eighteen of them identified specific learnings before, during and following interaction and five interviewees identified specific learnings prior to interaction only. Only 12.5% of the sample indicated that they followed the traditional, linear curriculum development model.

TABLE 19

WERE THE LEARNING EXPERIENCES SUCCESSFUL WHEN YOU FOLLOWED YOUR PLANS EXACTLY AS THEY HAD BEEN STRUCK?

Response	Frequency	Percentage of Total Response
Yes	23	57.5%
No	2	5.0%
Uncertain	7	17.5%
Not applicable	8	20.0%
Total	40	100.0%

TABLE 20

POINTS AT WHICH SPECIFIC LEARNINGS WERE IDENTIFIED DURING THE DEVELOPMENT OF CLASSROOM CURRICULUM

Identification Points of Specific Learnings		Frequency	Percentage of Total Response
Before commencing with interaction		5	12.5%
During and following interaction		17	42.5%
Before, during, and following interaction		18	45.0%
	Total	40	100.0%

DISCUSSION REGARDING THE RESPONSES TO THE ITEMS IN THE INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

Discussion Related to Items One, Two and Four

The majority of respondents expressed the opinion that it was imperative for teachers to be classroom curriculum developers. They commented that it was unfortunate that some teachers did not undertake this professional responsibility. As one teacher suggested, "It is impossible to cater to the needs of our pupils unless we develop curricula which takes them into consideration". The interviewees considered teaching to be composed of curriculum as well as instructional development and therefore effective teaching was considered to be directly related to the development of classroom curricula suited to all of the participants in the teaching-learning environment.

Ninety-five percent of the teachers perceived themselves as developers of classroom curriculum. All but one of the respondents agreed that a number of constraints operated to establish a framework within which their decisions had to be made. They agreed with Lindsey's (1962) view that the framework was sufficiently broad to permit them to function as curriculum developers. The one respondent who disagreed with the majority seemed to support the view which Wayland (1962) expressed, that teachers are nothing more than functionaries in a bureaucratic system.

Discussion Related to Items Three and Five to Sixteen Inclusive

Listed in their order of importance are the four elements which were perceived to be most influential in the identification of specific learnings following the selection of a starting point: students; the personal background and values of the teacher; the available resources; and the provincial guide. The same influencing elements were identified by the interviewees in their response to Item 3 in the interview schedule. The only difference which existed was in the rank ordering of the elements. When teachers select a starting point they are influenced mainly by their own background and value system, they are next influenced by the available resources, thirdly by the provincial guide and fourthly by the students themselves. It would appear therefore that Walker's (1971) view of a functioning platform is supported in the initial selection of an area of concentration but when specific learnings are being identified on the basis of an established starting point the student becomes the most influential element in the decision making process. The personal background and values of the teacher slip to a second place position, still wielding a great amount of influence. The discovery of how influential the teacher's background and values were in making curriculum decisions caused many respondents to react in surprise as if to say "How is this possible when all along we believed that our prime focus was on the pupils?"

Discussion of Responses to Item Seventeen

The data collected in response to Item 17 demonstrates agreement with Jackson's (1968) findings. Teachers are more concerned with how to motivate and cause pupils to become involved in the interactive phase than they are with having them master and apply specific concepts. It is consistent therefore that teachers sometimes plan an instructional sequence or move into the interactive phase directly after having identified a starting point rather than first identifying the specific learnings which they want their students to master and apply. They subscribe to the view that if students are interacting then learnings will be occurring.

Discussion Regarding Items Eighteen, Nineteen, and Twenty

Not only did 85% of the respondents report that it is possible to plan a good learning experience without first identifying specifically what is to be accomplished but they also indicated that they personally did not always begin with a specific knowledge of what they wished to accomplish. Using the criteria of motiviation, involvement, achievement and application, 82.5% of the interviewees believed that the learning experiences were generally successful, in situations where they did not first identify specifically what they wished to accomplish.

Discussion Regarding Items Twenty-one,Twenty-two, Twenty-three, and Twenty-four

From the responses of the interviewees, to Items 21, 22, 23, and 24, it is apparent that classroom teachers, at times, do follow Pattern 3, as identified in Chapter II. Using the established criteria for success, the respondents suggested that they met with success more often by following Pattern 2 (82.5%) than by following Pattern 3 (75%). The success factor may explain why fewer interviewees actually used Pattern 3.

Thirty-two respondents, who do not always plan in specific detail what learnings they wish pupils to gain and how the instructional tasks are to be performed, justified their actions with negative and positive reasons. 37% of the reasons related to the fact that time was either in short supply or was not used wisely. All reasons associated with time may be viewed as negative since teachers had no alternative but to implement Pattern 3. The remaining 63% of the responses (Table 14) may be categorized as positive because the teachers made decisions which indicated a preference for following Pattern 3. Their decisions were based on the following: (1) a desire to allow pupil participation and to avoid the development of a teacher centered program; (2) a curiosity and desire for spontaneity; and (3) a lack of success when the specific learnings and instructional procedures were identified in the preactive phase. The negative element related to time may account for the fact that Pattern 3 is considered to be less successful in providing a good learning experience for students than is Pattern 2.

Discussion Regarding Items Twenty-Five to Thirty Inclusive

This series of questions was asked in order to assess whether teachers follow both static and flexible routes, as described in the model developed for the study. The majority of teachers used both routes and were able to justify this practice mainly with positive reasons (Tables 15 and 17). Most of their responses showed that they were in control of deciding and implementing the route of their choice.

Discussion Regarding Item Thirty-One

All of the respondents demonstrated that they were classroom curriculum developers and all but five of the respondents used a variety of patterns in developing the curriculum which they described. This emphasizes the inadequacy of attempting to confine all thinking about curriculum development to the traditional model using a linear approach.

There is a high correlation between the responses to Item 19, where 15% of the respondents indicated that they always followed the traditional model for classroom curiculum development and the responses to Item 31 which dealt with the same problem but in a different context. In Item 31 it was found that 12.5% of the interviewees adhered to the traditional model.

DESCRIPTION OF RESPONSES TO THE PATTERNS OF CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT QUESTIONNAIRE

The questionnaire (Appendix C) was designed to identify the curriculum development patterns used by classroom teachers and to determine whether a relationship exists between the respondent's perceived degree of success in a learning situation and the point at which specific learnings are identified.

According to the weighted responses to the four items in section one of the questionaire, it was found that teachers most often identified specific learnings while they were interacting with pupils during the learning experience, this point of identification earned a weighting of 20. The next most used point of identification, with a weighting of 16 was the beginning of the plan, once the starting point had been established. The third most common point at which specific learnings were identified was during the post active phase, with a weighting of 14. The identification of specific learnings after planning the specific method of instruction earned a negative weighting of 3. The weightings assigned to the first three points identified above indicates that all three were used extensively by classroom teachers.

Table 21 shows the complete breakdown of responses.

It was found that the greatest amount of success, was associated with teachers who identified specific learnings during the interactive phase of the teaching sequence. The next most successful location, with a weighting of 35, occurred when the respondents identified specific learnings at the beginning of the sequence, directly after a starting point had been determined. The actual difference in weighting between these two points is so negligible that they can be considered to be of equal importance. A weighting of 22 shows that the relationship between success in a learning experience and the identification of specific learnings after the interaction has come to an end, is of lesser importance. The

TABLE 21

RANK ORDER OF POINTS AT WHICH SPECIFIC LEARNINGS ARE MOST OFTEN IDENTIFIED

Identification Points	Always	Almost Always	Occasionally	Seldom	Never	Weighting*
While interacting with pupils during a learning experience	2	19	16	3	0	20
At the beginning, directly after establishing the starting point	3	17	13	7	0	16
After the interaction has been completed	3	10	26	0	1	14
After having planned the specific method of instruction	2	7	19	10	2	-3

*Weightings were calculated by assigning a value of 2 for each check mark in the always column, and 1 for those in the almost always column. Check marks in the "occasionally" column were given a value of 0 because they represented uncertainty. Check marks in the seldom and never columns were assigned negative values of 1 and 2 respectively.

success factor associated with the identification of specific learnings after having planned a specific instructional sequence was assigned a weighting of 18 and is therefore considered to be of least importance.

By comparing the results displayed in Table 21 with those shown in Table 22, a high correlation appears between the ranking of a perceived success level of a learning experience and the ranking of the point at which specific learnings are most often identified.

Table 23 demonstrates that 40% of the respondents found it best to identify specific learnings at the beginning of a teaching sequence, after a starting point had been established; 35% showed preference for selecting specific learnings during the interactive phase; 17.5% found it best to identify them after the completion of interaction; and 7.5% felt that it was best to identify them after having planned the specific method of instruction. The small difference in frequency between the first two points which were labelled as the best, for the identification of specific learnings, suggests that together they are considered to be of prime importance.

Section 4 was included in the questionnaire (Appendix C) to provide a reliability check on the responses given in section 1 and to provide the respondents with an opportunity to identify other points at which specific learnings are most often identified.

By comparing the rank order of the points most often used in Table 21 with that of Table 24, a high degree of similarity is apparent.

No additional points at which specific learnings are identified

TABLE 22

THE DEGREE OF SUCCESS ASSOCIATED WITH A LEARNING EXPERIENCE AND THE POINT AT WHICH SPECIFIC LEARNINGS ARE IDENTIFIED

Identification Point	Very Successful	Successful	Undecided	Unsuccessful	Very Unsuccessful	Not Applicable	Weighting*
While interacting with pupils during a learning experience	9	19	11	1	0	0	36
At the beginning, directly after establishing the starting point	6	26	5	3	0	0	35
After the interaction has been completed	4	18	14	2	1	1	22
After having planned the specific method of instruction	1	19	14	3	0	3	18

*Weightings were calculated by assigning a value of 2 for each check mark in the very successful column and 1 for those in the successful column. Check marks in the undecided column were provided a value of 0 because they represented uncertainty. Check marks in the unsuccessful column and the very unsuccessful column were assigned values of -1 and -2 respectively. Check marks in the not applicable column were also assigned a value of 0.

TABLE 23

RANK ORDER OF POINTS AT WHICH RESPONDENTS FIND IT BEST TO IDENTIFY SPECIFIC LEARNINGS

Identification Point	Frequency	Percentage of Total Frequency
At the beginning, directly after establishing the starting point	16	40.0%
While interacting with pupils during a learning experience	14	35.0%
After the interaction has been completed	7	17.5%
After having planned the specific method of instruction	3	7.5%
Total	40	100.0%

TABLE 24

RANK ORDER OF POINTS AT WHICH SPECIFIC LEARNINGS ARE MOST OFTEN IDENTIFIED

Indentification Points	Frequency of Rankings 1st	2nd	3rd	4th	Weightings*	Percentage of Total Weightings
While interacting with pupils during a learning experience	12	14	13	1	117	29%
At the beginning, directly after establishing the starting point	16	6	7	11	107	27%
After the interaction has been completed	9	11	10	10	99	25%
After having planned tne specific method of instruction	3	9	10	18	77	19%

*Weightings were calculated by assigning a value of 4 to a first ranked item and so on.

were described by the respondents.

Table 25 shows a summary of the rank ordering of the four sections which in total comprise the Curriculum Development Pattern Questionniare.

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE BEST POINT AND THE MOST OFTEN USED POINT AT WHICH SPECIFIC LEARNINGS ARE IDENTIFIED IN SOCIAL STUDIES

The chi-square test of independence (Ferguson, 1971, p. 182) was applied in order to determine whether the selection of the point at which the respondent found it best to identify specific learnings in Social Studies (Item 9), was independent of the way in which the respondent rank ordered the points at which he actually identified specific learnings (Item 10). It was found that a significant relationship ($p < .01$) existed between the points at which the respondents found it best to identify specific learnings and the way in which they ranked the four possible positions.

The following contingency tables 26, 27, 28, and 29 show the relationship which exists between the point which is identified as being best for determining specific Social Studies learnings and the way in which the respondents ranked the position when it was compared with three others.

TABLE 25

SUMMARY OF RANK ORDERING OF THE FOUR GENERAL PROBLEMS SET IN THE CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT QUESTIONNAIRE

	While interacting with pupils during a learning experience	At the beginning, directly after establishing the starting point	After the interaction has been completed	After having planned the specific method of instruction
Rank order of points at which specific learnings are most often identified according to tabulated results on page one of the Curriculum Development Questionnaire.	1	2	3	4
Rank order of points at which specific learnings are most often identified according to tabluated results on page three of the Curriculum Development Questionnaire.	1	2	3	4
Rank order of success associated with learning experiences and the point at which specific learnings are identified according to tabluated results on page two of the Curriculum Development Questionnaire.	1	2	3	4
Rank order of points at which respondents find it best to identify specific learnings according to tabulated results on page three of the Curriculum Development Questionnaire.	1	2	3	4

TABLE 26

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE BEST POINT AT WHICH SPECIFIC SOCIAL STUDIES LEARNINGS ARE IDENTIFIED AND THE POINT MOST OFTEN SELECTED

Best Point at Which to Identify Specific Social Studies Learnings	Rank Order of Position Which Occurs Directly After the Starting Point Has Been Determined		
	Ranked 1st.	Ranked 2nd, 3rd or 4th.	Total
Directly after the starting point has been determined	15	1	16
Other points	1	23	24
Total	16	24	40

Chi-square corrected for continuity = 32.101
Degrees of freedom = 1
$p < .01$

TABLE 27

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE BEST POINT AT WHICH SPECIFIC SOCIAL STUDIES LEARNINGS ARE IDENTIFIED AND THE POINT MOST OFTEN SELECTED

Best Point at Which to Identify Specific Social Studies Learnings	Rank Order of Position Which Occurs Directly After the Instructional Design Has Been Established		
	Ranked 1st	Ranked 2nd, 3rd, and 4th.	Total
Directly After the Instructional Design Has Been Established	2	1	3
Other Points	1	36	37
Total	3	37	40

Chi-square corrected for continuity = 8.444
Degrees of freedom = 1
$p < .01$

TABLE 28

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE BEST POINT AT WHICH SPECIFIC SOCIAL STUDIES LEARNINGS ARE IDENTIFIED AND THE POINT MOST OFTEN USED

Best Point at Which to Identify Specific Social Studies Learnings	Rank Order of Position Which Occurs While Interacting With the Pupils		
	Ranked 1st.	Ranked 2nd, 3rd, and 4th.	Total
While Interacting With the Pupils	10	4	14
Other Points	2	24	26
Total	12	28	40

Chi-square corrected for continuity = 14.699
Degrees of freedom = 1
$p < .01$

TABLE 29

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE BEST POINT AT WHICH SPECIFIC SOCIAL STUDIES LEARNINGS ARE IDENTIFIED AND THE POINT MOST OFTEN USED

Best Point at Which to Identify Specific Social Studies Learnings	Rank Order of Position Which Occurs After the Interaction Has Been Completed		
	Ranked 1st	Ranked 2nd, 3rd, and 4th.	Total
After the Interaction Has Been Completed	5	2	7
Other Points	4	29	33
Total	9	31	40

Chi-square corrected for continuity = 8.496
Degrees of freedom = 1
$p < .01$

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS FROM "PATTERNS OF CLASSROOM CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT" QUESTIONNAIRE

Sections 1 and 4

Responses to these items, shown in Tables 21 and 24, were designed to identify the patterns of curriculum development used by the respondents and to determine the degree to which each pattern was practised. Both sections sought the same information but in a different context in order to check on the reliability of the responses which were provided (Appendix C). It was found that the four identified patterns were ranked identically in each case with only minor changes in the weightings of each pattern.

Respondents were given the opportunity of identifying other curriculum development patterns which they used but none were described. It may be possible that the four patterns identified in the model are, in fact, representative of the patterns which the respondents practise.

Section 2

By comparing the responses in Section 2 with the data recorded for Sections 1 and 4, it is possible to see how success in a learning experience is related to the pattern of curriculum development which is practised. Although the degree of success experienced when the respondents used the traditional model was high, the level of success was not powerful enough to permit the Tylerian type of model to be used universally in all situations by all respondents.

Section 3

When respondents were asked to identify the point at which they found it best to identify specific learnings, the majority chose the one located directly after the identification of an area of concentration. Despite the apparent popularity of this position in Section 3, it was ranked second in both Sections 1 and 4 when the respondents were asked to rank the points at which they identified specific learnings most often. This inconsistency may be due to some idiosyncratic factor in the group or it may be due to the professional preparation of the respondents. Conditioning derived from teacher education programs may have left its mark on some of the respondents and caused them to identify this point despite the fact that they did not practise what they thought was best.

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN DEMOGRAPHIC FACTORS AND CLASSROOM CURRICULUM PATTERNS USED BY TEACHERS IN SOCIAL STUDIES

Chi-square tests of independence were conducted on thirty-two pairs of variables in order to find out whether demographic factors are significantly related to the classroom curriculum patterns used by teachers. The .05 level of confidence was selected.

The age of the teacher and the number of years of teaching experience were found to be related to the use of Patterns 1 and 4 in classroom curriculum development. Table 30 demonstrates that teachers in the twenty-nine years and under age category tend to rank the identification of specific learnings directly after the starting point

TABLE 30

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE AGE OF TEACHERS AND HOW THEY RANK THE IDENTIFICATION OF SPECIFIC LEARNINGS DIRECTLY AFTER ESTABLISHING THE STARTING POINT

Age of Teachers	Rank Order of Position Which Occurs Directly After Determining the Starting Point		
	Ranked 1st or 2nd	Ranked 3rd or 4th	Total
29 years or less	16	5	21
30 years and over	6	13	19
Total	22	18	40

Chi-square = 8.021
Degrees of freedom = 1
$p < .01$

had been established higher than did the teachers who were thirty years old and over. The chi-square was calculated to be 8.021 at the .01 level of confidence.

Table 31 demonstrates that teachers thirty years and over, more often identified specific learnings after the interactive phase had been completed than did the teachers who were twenty-nine years old or less. The chi-square was equal to 4.912 and the probability level was at the .05 level of confidence.

Teachers with five or fewer years of teaching experience ranked higher the identification of specific Social Studies learnings directly after having established a starting point higher than did the teachers who had six or more years of teaching experience. Chi-square was calculated to be 7.424 and significant at the .01 level of confidence (Table 32).

Those teachers who had six or more years of teaching experience ranked the identification of specific Social Studies learnings after the interactive phase had been completed higher than did the teachers with fewer years of experience. The chi-square was equal to 10.417 significant at the .01 level of confidence. Table 33 contains this information.

Teaching experience was found to be independent of how the teachers ranked the identification of specific Social Studies learnings during the interactive phase. A chi-square value of 2.637 and a probability level greater than .10 was calculated (Table 34).

A chi-square of 3.095 at a probability level greater than .05 suggests that the age of the teacher is independent of teacher ranking of identification of specific Social Studies learnings during the

TABLE 31

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE AGE OF TEACHERS AND HOW THEY RANK THE IDENTIFICATION OF SPECIFIC SOCIAL STUDIES LEARNINGS AFTER THE COMPLETION OF THE INTERACTION PHASE

Age of Teachers	Rank Order of Position Which Occurs After the Completion of the Interaction Phase		
	Ranked 1st or 2nd	Ranked 3rd or 4th	Total
29 years or less	7	14	21
30 years and over	13	6	19
Total	20	20	40

Chi-square = 4.912
Degree of freedom = 1
$p < .05$

TABLE 32

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE NUMBER OF YEARS OF TEACHING EXPERIENCE AND HOW THE IDENTIFICATION OF SPECIFIC SOCIAL STUDIES LEARNINGS DIRECTLY AFTER ESTABLISHING THE STARTING POINT WAS RANKED

Years of Teaching Experience	Rank Order of Position Which Occurs Direction After Determining the Starting Point		
	Ranked 1st or 2nd	Ranked 3rd or 4th	Total
Five years or less	13	3	16
Six years or more	9	15	24
Total	22	18	40

Chi-square = 7.424
Degrees of Freedom = 1
$p < .01$

TABLE 33

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE NUMBER OF YEARS OF TEACHING EXPERIENCE AND HOW THE IDENTIFICATION OF SPECIFIC SOCIAL STUDIES LEARNINGS AFTER THE INTERACTIVE PHASE HAD BEEN COMPLETED

Years of Teaching Experience	Rank Order of Position Which Occurs After the Interactive Phase Has Been Completed		
	Ranked 1st or 2nd	Ranked 3rd or 4th	Total
Five years or less	3	13	16
Six years or more	17	7	24
Total	20	20	40

Chi-square = 10.417
Degrees of Freedom = 1
$p < .01$

TABLE 34

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE NUMBER OF YEARS OF TEACHING EXPERIENCE AND THE IDENTIFICATION OF SPECIFIC SOCIAL STUDIES LEARNINGS DURING THE INTERACTIVE PHASE

Years of Teaching Experience	Rank Order of Position Which Occurs During the Interactive Phase		
	Ranked 1st or 2nd	Ranked 3rd or 4th	Total
Five years or less	8	8	16
Six years or more	18	6	24
Total	26	14	40

Chi-square = 2.637
Degrees of Freedom = 1
$p > .10$

interactive phase. Examination of Table 35 shows that the teachers under twenty-nine years of age were almost evenly divided in their ranking of the interactive phase for the purpose of identifying specific learnings whereas fifteen out of nineteen teachers, who were thirty years old or older, ranked the interactive phase high on their list.

Teaching experience is also considered to be independent of how the teachers ranked the identification of specific Social Studies learnings directly after planning the instructional sequence based on a chi-square of 3.095 and a probability level greater than .05. Examination of Table 36 shows that teachers with five years or less of teaching experience were evenly divided in their ranking of this position while fifteen out of nineteen teachers, with six or more years of experience, ranked the position high on their list.

DISCUSSION REGARDING DEMOGRAPHIC FACTORS AND THEIR RELATIONSHIP WITH CLASSROOM CURRICULUM PATTERNS PRACTISED

Age and the number of years of teaching experience were identified as two of the factors significantly related to the pattern of classroom curriculum development practised by the teachers in the sample. All other factors such as: the sex of the teacher; the professional certificate held; the number of university courses taken which might help with Social Studies curriculum development; the number of professional experiences in which the teacher had been involved which might aid in the development of Social Studies

TABLE 35

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE AGE OF TEACHERS AND HOW THEY RANK THE IDENTIFICATION OF SPECIFIC SOCIAL STUDIES LEARNINGS DURING THE INTERACTIVE PHASE

Age of Teachers	Rank Order of Position Which Occurs During the Interactive Phase		
	Ranked 1st or 2nd	Ranked 3rd or 4th	Total
29 years or less	11	10	21
30 years or more	15	4	19
Total	26	14	40

Chi-square = 3.095
Degrees of Freedom = 1
$p > .05$

TABLE 36

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE NUMBER OF YEARS OF TEACHING EXPERIENCE AND THE IDENTIFICATION OF SPECIFIC SOCIAL STUDIES LEARNINGS DIRECTLY AFTER PLANNING THE INSTRUCTIONAL SEQUENCE

Years of Teaching Experience	Rank Order of Position Which Occurs Directly After Planning the Instructional Sequence		
	Ranked 1st or 2nd	Ranked 3rd or 4th	Total
Five Years or less	8	8	16
Six Years or more	4	20	24
Total	12	28	40

Chi-square corrected for continuity = 3.616
Degrees of Freedom = 1
$p > .05$

curriculum; and the source of the teacher's professional education, seemed to function independently of the curriculum development patterns used.

SUMMARY OF CHAPTER IV

This chapter reported findings in terms of frequency counts, percentages, weightings and rank ordering of responses. The chi-square test of independence, with the Yates correction for continuity, was used to determine relationships among demographic data and the various classroom curriculum development patterns reported by the subjects. A brief summary of the discussion based on the findings related to each of the research questions follows:

(1) Do teachers perceive themselves to be curriculum developers?

It was found through their responses that they not only saw themselves as curriculum developers but they also felt that it was absolutely essential that teachers develop curriculum in order that effective teaching-learning take place.

(2) What elements influence the teacher's selection of a starting point in the development of curriculum?

Walker's (1971) "Naturalistic Model" which suggests that the curriculum developer brings to his task a system of beliefs and values is substantiated by the fact that the respondents admitted to being influenced most by their own personal background and value systems in selecting areas of concentration. Teachers reported that they are also influenced by the following elements in descending order of importance: resources, provincial guides, students, current issues, logical sequence of the topic, school administrators, and finally, by other teachers.

(3) What elements influence the teacher in the process of curriculum development following the idnetification of a starting point?

The respondents stated that the strongest influencing element was the student, followed by the teacher's personal background and value system. The remaining elements listed in descending order are: resources, the provincial guide, internal school organization, other teachers, school principals, system administrators, parents, and friends and relatives.

(4) What patterns do teachers follow in developing curricula?

The four patterns followed by the interviewees are listed in their descending order of use and are identified according to the point at which the specific learnings are selected: during the interactive phase; at the beginning, directly after the starting point is determined; following the interactive phase; and after the specific method of instruction is established. Although all of these patterns were used to varying degrees, they were not always used exclusively. The majority of the respondents utilized more than one pattern of development in their description of a recent curriculum which they had planned.

(5) What demographic factors influence the patterns of curriculum development practised by classroom teachers?

Of the eight factors which were considered (see Appendix B) it was found that age and the amount of teaching experience possessed by the respondent are related to the type of pattern practised. Factors such as the highest degree held; sex; the source of professional education; the number of university courses completed which may be considered as helpful in curriculum development; and the number of professional experiences designed to improve curriculum development to which the respondent had been exposed, were not found to be related to particular curriculum development practices.

Members of the sample group demonstrated that the classroom curriculum development model, represented by Figure 1 in Chapter II is valid. The respondents indicated that the classical, linear, Tylerian or Taba like pattern is only one of four patterns practised. Not only did the subjects in the sample make use of the four patterns illustrated but they also varied these by using the flexible and static routes that are shown. The participating members in this study have also demonstrated that classroom curriculum development in Social Studies is a complex process that may occur in the preactive, interactive, and postactive phases of the teaching-learning process. It does not occur simply during one phase as suggested by the classical model.

In the next chapter some of the implications of these findings will be discussed and recommendations will be proposed.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The final chapter presents a summary of the investigation. The problems which were explored are outlined in relation to the conditions which prevail in the curriculum development domain at this time. The research design and methodologies along with a description of the principal findings of the investigation are described. Major conclusions drawn from the findings are stated. Finally, the implications are drawn for the theory and practice of curriculum development at the classroom level, for teacher education and for further research.

SUMMARY

This investigation was undertaken because, in a number of Canadian provinces, teachers have been given responsibility for developing curricula for their pupils. Despite the existence of a movement toward decentralization of decision making, little is known about the way in which this professional task is performed and what elements function to influence teachers in the identification of general, as well as specific learnings for their pupils. It also appears that many professional educators have applied the traditional curriculum development model proposed by Tyler (1950) to classroom curriculum development despite the fact that it was primarily created for the purpose of developing curricula suited for a provincial or state level. No evidence is available to substantiate the notion that this model is equally appropriate to the classroom or that it is the only model which should be used. Therefore, this study was designed to gather data which would provide information about the factors which influence teachers in making curriculum decisions and to find out whether alternative patterns of classroom curriculum development are being followed in practice.

A tentative classroom curriculum development model was generated in order to consider alternatives to traditional curriculum development procedures. The model was based on the following assumptions:

(1) that classroom curriculum is composed of specific learnings considered to be necessary outcomes of schooling identified by classroom teachers or by teachers in conjunction with students;

(2) that teachers are operating within a framework accepted favourably by governing forces functioning within society;

(3) that sources for starting points are many and varied and that all classroom curriculum development begins at the starting point;

(4) that specific learnings may be identified at various points and in various orders during teaching-learning experiences; and

(5) that classroom curriculum development is affected by the degree of flexibility practised by the classroom teacher.

The model was comprised of four key parts (1) the starting point; (2) the preactive phase; (3) the interactive phase; and (4) the postactive phase. It demonstrated that classroom curriculum development could occur solely in one of the identified phases or in a variety of phases and in a variety of orders.

Pattern 1 represents the traditional curriculum development procedures recommended by such people as Taba and Tyler. In this pattern, following the selection of a starting point and during the preactive phase, the teacher identifies specific learnings intended to become outcomes as a result of the teaching-learning process. The degree of flexibility practised by the teacher permits the modification of specific learnings as progress is made through the other phases.

In pattern 2, following the selection of a starting point and during the preactive phase, the teacher as a first step, identifies specific instructional procedures. As a second step specific learnings that should result from the established specific instructional design may be identified during the preactive and/or interactive phases. The degree of flexibility practised by the teacher influences the order and points at which specific learnings are identified.

For pattern 3, the teacher, following the selection of a starting point, moves directly into the interactive phase. During this phase specific learnings and a specific instructional design are identified. The degree of flexibility practised by the teacher influences the amount of modification that may occur in the specific learnings as progress is made to the postactive phase.

In pattern 4, following the selection of a starting point, the teacher moves into the preactive phase. A specific instructional design is established and then the teacher moves on to the interactive and postactive phases. Specific learnings are identified through reflection during the postactive phase. The degree of flexibility practised by the teacher influences modification of the instructional design during the interactive phase and therefore also influences the specific learnings which may be identified in the postactive portion of the teaching-learning sequence.

Five research questions were formulated. It was considered important to find out whether or not teachers viewed themselves as classroom curriculum developers. Such information would reveal how willingly teachers perform the task and it would indicate the relative amount of freedom which they perceived themselves to have when making curriculum decisions. Two questions were developed in order to help identify the elements which influence teacher curriculum decisions significantly, and to establish the order and the degree to which these elements function in developing curriculum in a classroom setting. The fourth research question was considered with the pattern(s) of curriculum development teachers perceive themselves to be practising. Attention was focused on the point or points at which the teachers identified specific learnings during the total teaching-learning process whether at the preactive, interactive or postactive phases. The final question was concerned with identifying the cause-effect relationship which might exist between the personal attributes of the teacher and the pattern(s) of curriculum development practised.

The Design and Methodology of the Research

The sample was comprised of forty classroom teachers selected at random from those teaching Social Studies at the grade four, five, or six levels using the Province of Alberta Elementary Social Studies Handbook: *Experiences in Decision Making*. Twenty teachers were chosen from each of two large urban school systems: The Edmonton Public School District and the Edmonton Roman Catholic Separate School District.

While the decision to restrict the sample to forty teachers who were working within the described framework was recognized as imposing a limitation on the generalizability of the research findings, it did enable the researcher to devote a large block of time to each respondent in order to make certain that the responses provided in this exploratory study were as accurate as possible. Much of the data were gathered through personal interviews to permit face to face contact, to provide the possibility of probing and thus increase validity and reliability of the results. The personal contact time required to set up and to conduct each interview ranged from one and a half to two and a half hours. In order to reduce the number of complications the study was restricted to development of Social Studies curriculum as it is practised by teachers working at the grade four, five, or six levels.

An interview schedule composed of thirty-one items was developed and revised after extensive field testing (Appendix A). In order to limit the length of time required to conduct the interview to approximately forty-five minutes, it was necessary to structure the schedule in such a way that a great deal of emphasis would be placed on gathering data about the elements which influence curriculum development and a lesser amount of stress on determining the curriculum development patterns followed by teachers. A questionnaire was developed in order to gather the additional information required regarding the curriculum patterns that the subjects used. During the interview the respondents were familiarized with the terminology which they would encounter in the Patterns of Classroom Curriculum Development Questionnaire (Appendix C). A questionnaire was also developed in order to gather demographic data relating to each member of the sample group (Appendix B).

The interview was conducted in the respondent's school, at a time selected by the interviewee and in an area which provided privacy for an uninterrupted session. All sessions were recorded on audio-tape in order to permit an accurate analysis of data at a later time. At the conclusion of each interview the respondents were provided with copies of the two questionnaires and were invited to complete and to mail them to the investigator. All questionnaires were completed and returned within two weeks.

The interview schedule and the questionnaires were examined for face validity by panels composed of university staff, graduate students, and experienced classroom teachers. Members of the panels agreed that the instruments would elicit the kinds of information for which they were designed.

Results

Teachers in the sample group perceived themselves to be free to develop classroom curricula and 95% of the respondents expressed the opinion that they personally considered themselves developers of curricula. Two of the interviewees expressed uncertainty about their status as curriculum developers. They felt that they were not completely free to make decisions about specific learnings for their pupils but had to work within a framework prescribed by numerous outside sources.

The interviewees identified eight elements they considered to be influential in their decision making when they were identifying a starting point in curriculum development. The individual's personal background and value system were declared to function most often and therefore appeared at the top of the list as the factor having the greatest effect in the selection of an area of concentration. Resources were considered to be the second most powerful element which helped to structure the teacher's view in the selection of a starting point. It was suggested that selections were often made strictly on the basis of the resources available at the time. The provincial guide and the students' needs, interests, and experiences were the third and fourth most often mentioned elements which influenced the teachers. The teacher's personal background and values, available instructional resources, the provincial guide, and student needs, interests, and experiences represent 85.7% of all the responses identifying influential elements in the selection of a starting point. Current issues such as happenings in the community, represented 9.5% of the total responses; logical sequence represented 2.4% of the total while school administrators and other teachers each represented 1.2 % of the total responses were insignificant in their influence on the selection of an area of concentration.

The respondents rank ordered a list of ten elements according to the amount of influence that these elements had with respect to the identification of specific learnings *once a starting point had been selected.* The elements were rank ordered in the following manner: the student's needs and interests were first, the teacher's background and value system were second; the availability of instructional resources was in third position; the provincial guide was fourth; internal school organization was ranked fifth; other teachers were located in sixth place; school principals were in seventh position; system administrators were eighth; parents of pupils were ninth; and the friends and relatives of the teacher were ranked in tenth position. When the interviewees were given the opportunity of identifying elements in addition to the ones listed above, fifteen participants mentioned the effect of media, ten individuals referred to community factors, and one person spoke of the influence provided by professional literature. Because fewer than half of the respondents mentioned any one of the additional elements, these elements were not considered to be significant.

From a list of eight demographic factors known about each respondent, it was found that only age and teaching experience were related to the patterns of classroom curriculum development which were followed. Teachers who were twenty-nine years of age or less tended to rank pattern one, which represents the traditional model, higher than did those who were thirty or more years old. Teachers who were thirty years and over identified specific learnings during the postactive phase more often than those who were twenty-nine years old or less.

Teaching experience was linked with curriculum development patterns, in that the respondents with five or fewer years of experience ranked pattern one the highest, indicating that they identified specific learnings directly after selecting a starting point more often than those with six years of experience or more. It was also found that teachers with six or more years of experience ranked pattern four, where they identified specific learnings during the postactive phase, higher than those with less experience.

CONCLUSIONS

It should be noted that the conclusions must be treated with caution since the evidence on which they are based is subject to two major limitations. The sample used in this study was small and was restricted to one urban center and secondly there may be a significant gap between what classroom teachers perceive themselves to do and what in fact they happen to practise.

The majority of teachers who participated in the study consider themselves to be classroom curriculum developers. They maintained that it is only possible to teach effectively when curriculum is being developed in the classroom. Despite the fact that they recognize that they function under various constraints, they perceived themselves as having considerable latitude to develop curriculum within the existing organizational and/or policy framework. To them classroom curriculum development was a professional responsibility of which they were very proud.

It appears that the force of the teacher's personal background and value system is the most powerful functioning element operating when decisions are made regarding the selection of an area of concentration. Therefore, regardless of other influences such as the availability of resources, the recommendations of the provincial or local guide, the needs and interests of students, and the directions given by school administrators, to mention only a few, all are secondary to the teacher's likes and dislikes, his beliefs, his needs and his interests. This is not meant to suggest that all of the other influencing elements are insignificant for they do play a role, albeit a lesser one, in formulating the framework within which the teacher exercises his background and value system.

It is significant to note that the student, for whom presumably all learnings are devised, was ranked in fourth place as an influence on curriculum decision-making after such factors as the teacher's background and value system, the availability of resources, and the recommendations of the provincial guide. Perhaps both resources and the provincial guide provide sufficient scope for the teacher to be able to justify what he prefers to select as a starting point and therefore prevent the student's influence from exercising a more important role in selecting the starting point for curriculum development.

The findings of this study support Walker's (1971) idea that a "platform" exists at the point where decisions are made about areas of concentration in classroom curriculum development. The teacher brings his set of beliefs and values to the process.

After having played the most dominant role in the selection of a starting point, the teacher turns to the needs and interests of students as the most influenctial of the ten elements. The ten elements influence the identification of specific learnings evolving from a teaching-learning experience. The personal background and values of the teacher now are ranked in second position directly following the first ranked students, demonstrating the high significance of this element in terms of classroom curriculum development decisions. Resources, the provincial guide, internal school organization, and other teachers were ranked third, fourth, fifth, and sixth, not only demonstrating their influencing strength but also their proximity to the classroom scene. People participating actively in the schooling process such as school principals, system administrators, and parents are ranked seventh, eighth, and ninth respectively. Friends and relatives of the teacher, who are the most remote group from the classroom were positioned in tenth place. It is therefore possible to conclude, from the findings of this study, that as the elements became more remote from the classroom their rank decreased proportionately.

The linear curriculum development model was found to be insufficient for the purpose of describing the process used by grade four, five, or six teachers, working in the field of Social

Studies. In terms of the model developed for this study Pattern 1, representing the traditional model was used approximately one-quarter of the time for classroom curriculum development. The remaining three patterns, 2, 3, ann 4 were used approximately three-fourths of the time. From the detailed description of a curriculum which had been developed by each respondent, it became apparent that most teachers in the sample group used more than one pattern in the development of a single curriculum related to a general area of concentration. Pattern 3, which involved the identification of specific learnings during the interactive process, proved to be the one used most often.

Patterns 1 and 2, located in the preactive phase of the teaching-learning operation, were used approximately one-half of the time in making decisions about specific learnings (Table 23). The combined use of Pattern 3, located in the interactive phase and Pattern 4, positioned in the postactive stage, are used slightly more than half of the time. This indicates that as much classroom curriculum development occurs during and following interaction as prior to the actual teacher-pupil involvement.

Younger teachers with fewer than five years of teaching experience were found to favour the use of the linear curriculum development model (Pattern 1), while teachers who were older and who had more experience showed less preference for this approach. It may be that young, less experienced teachers who are in closer proximity to their teacher education programs, prefer Pattern 1 because of the thorough grounding which they received in this form of curriculum development. Lacking a sense of security, the young inexperienced teacher may tend to cling to the pattern which seems to possess an air of respectability and which functions adequately in the classroom. With age, experience and the accumulation of additional knowledge, the security level increases so that the teacher feels sufficiently strong to make greater use of a variety of curriculum development patterns.

In summary, teachers were found to be actively developing curricula. Their own needs, interests, and beliefs seemed to dominate the selection of starting points in the planning process but they allowed the student's needs and interests to become most influential when the next stage occurred. The traditional curriculum development model represented by Pattern 1, was found to be one of a number of models which function in the classroom. All four patterns illustrated in the tentative classroom curriculum development model were practised by teachers who made up the sample group. It was concluded that age and length of teaching experience influence the curriculum development patterns used by teachers.

IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study was undertaken to provide information about curriculum development at the classroom level based on research rather than on speculation. Accordingly implications for the findings relate to preservice teacher education, in-service teacher education, the development of a theory of curriculum development and research in the curriculum development field.

Preservice Teacher Education

Some of the findings of this study suggest that preservice teacher education should place greater emphasis on helping beginning teachers to gain a thorough understanding of themselves. Since teachers have indicated that their individual personal background and value systems are extremely influential in classroom curriculum development, it is essential that they gain a fuller understanding of themselves before they attempt to understand others.

Evidence is not available to verify the relative value of each identified pattern of classroom curriculum development. Until such time as evidence is produced to indicate that some patterns are better than others, we may be well advised to structure teacher education programs in such a way that prospective teachers would be introduced to the classroom curriculum development patterns being followed by practising classroom teachers. Few changes in existing programs would be required in order to satisfy the preactive phase of development for the traditional pattern (Pattern 1) is very much part of the present day teacher education format. Pattern 2 which involves the determination of a specific instructional design prior to the identification of specific learnings would have to be introduced. A greater modification in existing programs would be required in order to provide beginning teachers with a knowledge of how curriculum development takes place during the interactive and postactive phases. This would require knowledge and skills in such matters as: group structure and function, evaluation theory, child development and in the identification of student needs. Beginning teachers should be made aware that curriculum development occurs when specific learnings are identified during the interactive and postactive phases and opportunities to practise these patterns should be provided during the initial teacher education period. Experienced teachers who are practising all four patterns and who would be prepared to permit student teachers to practise all of these patterns in their classrooms would need to be identified. As a preliminary step to the practice of alternative patterns of curriculum development the student teacher would require an understanding of the elements which function to create the framework within which a starting point is selected and of the elements which operate to influence the specific learnings which flow out of the starting point. The beginning teachers would also require training in the skill of recognizing, with speed and accuracy, the needs and interests of students.

In-Service Teacher Education

The in-service teacher education program might strive to increase and reinforce the same type of understandings and experiences described for the preservice program. The activities might incorporate intervisitations so that teachers may observe teaching-learning activities, strategies and planning appropriate to alternative patterns of curriculum development. Small group discussions might be planned to allow teachers to identify consciously the elements that function to influence their starting points and the learnings which result. Attendance in special classes, designed to help the individuals to improve their self-understanding, might also be encouraged.

Curriculum Development Theory

The findings in this study indicate that the linear curriculum development model is not appropriate by itself, for classroom curriculum development. The gap between curriculum development theory and classroom practice will continue to exist unless the theorists look to what is happening in the field and incorporate their findings in theory. If theory is constructed to describe, as well as to predict a phenomenon, and if theory is accurate in these functions there should be no gap between what occurs in the classroom and what is stated in theory. This study demonstrates the existence of such a gap. It also demonstrates the importance of gathering accurate descriptive information about classroom curriculum development in order to assist in generating valid theory. It is crucial that we produce valid curriculum theory that can be used in teacher education programs and by classroom teachers.

Further Research

The findings of the present study indicate several areas of importance for future research. First, there appears to be a need to find out if classroom curriculum development is affected by the content and nature of different Elementary School subjects.

Differences might be related to:

(1) the elements which influence the teacher's starting point in classroom curriculum development;

(2) the elements which influence the teacher in the process of classroom curriculum development following the establishment of a starting point; and

(3) the patterns which teachers follow in developing classroom curriculum.

Second, studies might be conducted to determine the relative worth of the identified classroom curriculum development patterns.

Third, investigations might be conducted to find out what changes should be incorporated into the curricula of teacher education institutions to assist potential classroom teachers in the task of curriculum development at the classroom level.

Finally, it seems important to discover how in-service programs could be devised in order to assist practising classroom teachers in the task of curriculum development.

CONCLUDING STATEMENT

This study represents an initial attempt to gather data which may lead to a better understanding of how teachers make curriculum choices. It also represents an attempt to identify the pattern(s) of Social Studies curriculum development practised by certain elementary school teachers. Descriptive information of this nature is a necessary prerequisite for the development of a theory of curriculum appropriate for pre-service and practising teachers.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

Item 1 What is your reaction to the idea that classroom teachers are curriculum developers?

Item 2 Are you a classroom curriculum developer?

Item 3 Think about a recent experience in Social Studies and describe how you established your starting point.

Item 4 To what extent do you feel free to make decisions about the learnings for pupils in your classroom?

Item 5 How might the school principal influence the specific Social Studies learnings going on in your classroom?

Item 6 How might the administrators of the school system influence the specific Social Studies learnings for pupils in your classroom?

Item 7 How might the internal organization of the school (i.e. timetables, routines, etc.) affect the specific Social Studies learnings for pupils in your classroom?

Item 8 How might other classroom teachers influence the specific Social Studies learnings for pupils in your classroom?

Item 9 How might parents influence the specific Social Studies learnings for the pupils in your classroom?

Item 10 How might the students in your classroom influence the specific Social Studies learnings in which they will be engaged?

Item 11 How might your personal background and values influence the specific Social Studies learnings which you select for the pupils in your classroom?

Item 12 How might your friends and relations influence the specific Social Studies learnings which you select for the pupils in your classroom?

Item 13 How might resources such as textbooks, films, filmstrips, charts, etc. influence the specific Social Studies learnings for pupils in your classroom?

Item 14 How might the provincially developed curriculum guide *Experiences in Decision Making* influence the specific Social Studies learnings which you select for the pupils in your classroom?

Item 15 What other elements might influence the specific Social Studies learnings which you select for the pupils in your classroom?

Item 16 Rank order the elements which function to influence the specific Social Studies learnings which you select for the pupils in your classroom following the identification of a starting point.
(All elements identified will be printed on individual cards and the respondents will be invited to arrange them in order from the most significant to the least significant).

Item 17 What tells you that things are going well in your classroom?
Rank these signs in order of their importance to you.

Item 18 Is it possible to plan a good learning experience without first identifying specifically what is to be accomplished?

Item 19 Are there times when you do not know specifically what you wish the pupils to accomplish before you begin to plan a method of instruction or begin to interact with your pupils?

Item 20 Have the learning experiences been generally successful when you have not known specifically what you wished the pupils to accomplish before you started to plan a method of instruction or started to interact with your pupils?

Item 21 Is it possible to provide the pupils with a good learning experience without planning in specific detail what you wish the pupils to accomplish and specifically how you will perform the instructional task?

Item 22 Are there times when you do not plan in specific detail what you wish to accomplish and how you will conduct the instructional task before you begin the interactive phase of a learning experience?

Item 23 Have the learning experiences been generally successful when you have commenced instruction without identifying what specific learnings would be stressed and what specific procedures would be followed?

Item 24 Why did you commence instruction without establishing in advance the specific learnings which would be stressed and the specific procedures which would be followed?

Item 25 Have you ever planned a learning experience in specific detail and then failed to follow it?

Item 26 Why did you deviate from the specific plan which you had developed?

Item 27 Were the learning experiences successful when you deviated from your specific plan?

Item 28 Are there times when you should follow your specific plans just as they had been established?

Item 29 Why have you followed your specific plans exactly as they had been struck?

Item 30 Were the learning experiences successful when you followed your plans exactly as they had been struck?

Item 31 Select a starting point which you have used from *Experiences in Decision Making* and describe the curriculum plan which you developed.

APPENDIX B

DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

QUESTIONNAIRE

DEMOGRAPHIC DATA QUESTIONNAIRE

The following information is required to help describe the sample group used for this study. This information will not be used for the purpose of attempting to identify the respondents.

Select the response which is most correct and enter the numeral which identifies the answer in the space provided under the heading "Answer Column".

Answer all questions as accurately as possible.

Answer Column

1. Sex:
    1. Male
    2. Female

   ______

2. Age as of May 1, 1973:
    1. Under 20 years
    2. 20 to 29 years
    3. 30 to 39 years
    4. 40 to 49 years
    5. 50 to 59 years
    6. 60 years and over

   ______

3. Most current teachers' certificate held:
    1. Professional
    2. Standard Elementary
    3. Standard Secondary
    4. Junior Elementary
    5. Provisional
    6. Conditional
    7. Other (Specify) ______________

   ______

4. Total years of teaching experience to June 1973:
    1. 2 years or less
    2. 3 to 5 years
    3. 6 to 10 years
    4. 11 to 15 years
    5. 16 to 20 years
    6. 21 years or over

   ______

5. Total number of years of post secondary education (beyond the completion of matriculation).
    1. 1 year
    2. 2 years
    3. 3 years
    4. 4 years
    5. 5 years
    6. 6 years or more

   ______

6. Source of professional teacher training:
    1. University of Alberta
    2. University of Calgary
    3. University of Lethbridge
    4. University outside of Alberta
    5. Other (specify) ______________

   ______

7. Under the headings which appear below, provide the information required about the completed university courses which you think have assisted you in developing classroom curriculum for social studies.

EXAMPLE:

	Course Description	Course Number	University	Year
	Teacher's Role in Curriculum Development	Ed. C.I. 302	University of Alberta	1971
	Program Development in Elementary Social Studies	Ed. C.I. 512	University of Alberta	1972
(i)				
(ii)				
(iii)				
(iv)				
(v)				

	Course Description	Course Number	University	Year
(vi)				

8. Under the headings which appear below, provide the information required about the professional experiences in which you have participated for the expressed purpose of receiving assistance in curriculum development as it applies to Social Studies and the utilization of Experiences in Decision Making. The professional experiences include such things as workshops, mini-courses, in-service seminars, micro-teaching, etc.

EXAMPLE:

	Nature of Experience	Location	Sponsor	Date
	Two day workshop in the preparation of behavioral objectives	Edmonton	Regional Office Consultant	1970
(i)				
(ii)				
(iii)				
(iv)				

	Nature of Experience	Location	Sponsor	Date
(v)	____________________	____________	___________	_____
	____________________		___________	
	____________________			
(vi)	____________________	____________	___________	_____
	____________________		___________	
	____________________			

****

APPENDIX C

PATTERNS OF CLASSROOM CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT QUESTIONNAIRE

PATTERNS OF CLASSROOM CURRICULUM
DEVELOPMENT QUESTIONNAIRE

DIRECTIONS

(1) Place a check mark (✓) in the column which best represents your response to the problem which is stated.

(2) Check only one response for each problem stated.

(3) Respond to each problem.

	Always	Almost Always	Occasionally	Seldom	Never
1. How often have you identified specific objectives directly after you have finished interacting with your pupils during a social studies learning experience?					
2. How often do you plan exactly what you are going to do before considering specifically what your pupils will get out of a social studies experience?					
3. How often do you identify specific objectives while you are interacting with your pupils during a social studies learning experience?					
4. How often do you begin planning a social studies learning experience for your pupils by identifying specific objectives?					

DIRECTIONS

(1) Place a check mark (✓) in the column which best represents your response to the problem which is stated.

(2) Check only one response for each problem stated.

(3) Respond to each problem.

	Very Successful	Successful	Undecided	Unsuccessful	Very Unsuccessful	Not Applicable
5. To what extent has the learning experience been successful when you have started your lesson planning by identifying specific objectives?						
6. To what extent has the learning experience been successful when you have planned exactly what you are going to do before considering specifically what your pupils will get out of the experience?						
7. To what extent has the learning experience been successful when you have identified specific objectives while you have been interacting with your pupils?						
8. To what extent has the learning experience been successful when you have identified specific objectives directly after having finished interacting with your pupils?						

DIRECTIONS

(1) Place a check mark (✓) opposite the response which best represents your answer to the problem stated.

(2) Select one point only.

9. On the basis of your personal experience, at what point in planning and executing a social studies learning experience do you find it best to identify what your pupils will get from the experience

	directly after you have finished interacting with the pupils during a learning experience
	directly after you have identified an area of concentration
	directly after you have planned how you are going to do something
	while you are interacting with the pupils during a learning experience
	other (specify)________ ________ ________ ________

10. Rank order the points at which you identify specifically what your pupils will get from a social studies experience.

Allow the numeral 1 to represent the point which is most commonly used, the numeral 2 to represent the point which is used to a lesser extent and so on.

	while you are interacting with the pupils during a learning experience
	directly after you have finished interacting with the pupils during a learning experience
	directly after you have identified an area of concentration.
	directly after you have planned how you are going to do something
	other (specify)________ ________ ________ ________